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THE

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The R. I. Schoolmaster.

JANUARY, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

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NUMBER ONE.

For the Schoolmaster.
The Smithsonian Report.*

The Temperature at Providence — Prof. Caswell's Observations — Comparison with Temperature of Arkansas — Dr. Smith's Observations.

THE twelfth volume of the *Smithsonian Contribution to Knowledge* has just been completed and published. It consists of five distinct works, embraced in 537 large quarto pages:

I. *Astronomical Observations in the Arctic Seas*, by Elisha Kent Kane, M. D.

II. *On Fluctuations of Level in the North American Lakes*, by Charles Whittlesey.

III. *Meteorological Observations made at Providence, Rhode Island, for twenty-eight and one-half years*, by Prof. Alexis Caswell.

IV. *Meteorological Observations made near Washington, Arkansas, for twenty years*, by Dr. Nathan D. Smith.

V. *Researches upon the Venom of the Rattlesnake*, with an investigation of the anatomy and physiology of the organs concerned, by Dr. S. W. Mitchell.

We wish, in this brief article, to call the attention of Rhode Island teachers to some deductions from the *third* of these contributions, relative to the temperature of our State, and to institute a comparison between the temperature of the latitude of 42° on the Atlantic coast and the latitude of 34° in the Mississippi valley.

This series of observations made by Professor Caswell will be found of great value in future

meteorological investigations. The deductions are in themselves important, and will form the basis for subsequent deductions upon the subject.

The record of the observations themselves occupies one hundred and seventy-nine of the largest quarto pages which can be introduced into the volumes of the *Smithsonian Contributions*.

“They comprise a record of the barometer and thermometer made three times a day, the direction and force of the wind, and the face of the sky for the same period; also, the depth of rain, together with a column of general remarks on casual phenomena. The series is terminated by a number of general tables—the first giving the monthly and annual mean height of the barometer during the whole term of years; the second, the monthly and annual mean height of barometer at sunrise or 6 A. M., 1 or 2 P. M., and 10 P. M.; third, monthly and annual mean temperatures, deduced from the three observations daily; fourth, monthly and annual mean temperature at sunrise or 6 A. M., 1 or 2 P. M., and 10 P. M.; fifth, monthly and annual maximum and minimum temperatures and range; sixth, the number of days in each month in which the prevailing winds came from each of the four quarters of the horizon; seventh, mean force of the wind at the different hours of observation, and for the month and year; eighth, mean cloudiness of the sky at the different hours of observation, and the mean for the month and year; ninth, monthly and annual number of days in which the weather was clear, variable, or cloudy—on which rain or snow fell; the tenth, monthly and annual quantity of rain and snow in inches.

“From the records themselves an account of

* We are indebted to Hon. James F. Simmons, Senator from Rhode Island, for the “Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, for the year 1860.”

the weather on any day for twenty-eight years past may be obtained. From the general tables we can determine the connection of the variations of the barometer with the changes of the weather, and deduce rules of practical importance as well as of scientific interest. From the tables of the records of the thermometer, we find that the mean temperature of Providence for the whole time is $48^{\circ} 19'$, and that during the twenty-eight years of observation the oscillation on either side of this, with the exception of four years, is within a single degree."

The observations by Dr. Smith were made at Washington, Hempstead County, Arkansas, lat. $33^{\circ} 47'$, long. $16^{\circ} 42'$ west from Washington. This place is the summit of the dividing ridge between the waters of the Red River and those of the Washita. From this ridge there is no higher level for a long distance. From the observations of Dr. Smith for twenty years the mean daily temperature is found to be 61.81° .

At Providence the coldest year was 1836.

In Arkansas the coldest year was 1843.

At Providence the warmest year was 1848.

In Arkansas the warmest year was 1854.

At Providence the coldest month is February.

In Arkansas the coldest month is January.

At Providence the warmest month is July.

In Arkansas, the same.

The mean annual amount of rain at Providence is 40.38 inches; Arkansas, 54.70.

At Providence the greatest amount of rain falls in August; and the least amount in February.

At Washington, Ark., the greatest amount falls in April; the least in September.

At Providence the coldest single month of the whole period was January, 1857. The warmest month of the whole period was August, 1848; and the next warmest was July, 1838.

At Washington the coldest New Year's day was 1840; the mean temperature of which was 22° . The warmest, 1846 and 1855; the mean temperature of each being 57° . The coldest day in the year is the 18th of January; and the warmest, the 15th of July.

The amount of labor necessary to these observations, the preparation of the tables and the deductions made from them, is immense. Imagine an observer noting the thermometer, barometer, wind, water-gauge, &c., three times a day, for twenty or thirty years; recording his observations, averaging each month, each year, and for the whole term, and we then have only

the data, the necessary facts for a vast amount of deductive reasoning.

These deductions extend to many departments of natural science—meteorological, chemical, mechanical, agricultural, astronomical.

A valuable commentary on the well known principle that valuable knowledge is only gained by great labor, and an illustration of that other fact, that by means of books each generation inherits all the wealth of knowledge accumulated by all the past. M.

How Wordsworth Looked Commonly.

In a new English novel, called "A Family History," there is a description of Wordsworth and his daughter, which is worth copying:

"He came in, a tall, gaunt man, wearing a huge pair of blue spectacles, with side goggles to them. He looked rough and weather-beaten, more, I thought, in outward appearance, like a shrewd old dale farmer than a great poet. 'Take off those nasty things, papa,' said Dora, going up to him, and trying to take off his spectacles; 'who can see what you're like in them?' He laughed and complied. Altogether, even when the goggles were removed, his appearance disappointed me. I saw nothing in his looks that distinguished him from other men, as a great genius. I could not have picked him out as the poet, as I once picked out Alfred Tennyson at a ball from among some hundred other persons, long before any print of him had ever been published. Wordsworth's features were heavy, large and coarse; his light gray eyes had no fire in them; his nose was straight, broad and massy; his mouth wide and rather sensual; I thought it betokened irritability. Only the calm, high forehead indicated the lofty mind that had entranced thousands. I saw that Dora was extremely like him, only the lines that were harsh in him were in her softened to beauty, and that she had soft, expressive and beautiful eyes. When I had had a good look at him, Mrs. Wordsworth said, 'There, my dear, now you have seen him as he really is. You shall see what a figure he makes of himself; you would hardly take him for a poet in his walking costume.' 'More likely for a highwayman,' suggested one of the friends, who had returned with him. 'Yes,' echoed another, 'that stick is enough to frighten anybody.' 'Oh, ay,' said he, 'I forgot that. I must show Miss Neville my walking-staff.' He went out, and returned with a thick knotted stick, which he showed

me, telling me 'it was invaluable in climbing the mountains.' I think he said he had travelled twice in Scotland. His daughter smiled, and said, 'Yes, papa, and as we went along, the people on the borders laughed at the "strange mon."' He explained to me, who sat at his right hand, 'Yes, Miss Neville, they did laugh as me; we travelled in an open carriage; my eyes were bad, and so' — Dora, by a merry glance, telegraphed across the table that his eyes ailed *nothing* — 'so I wore a veil, as I do now, to shade them. Dora drove, and the people used to come out of their cottages and stand looking after us, calling out to one another, "Lo'tha, lo'tha, there's a man wi' a veil! an' a lass driving!"'

How Musical Artists Affect Each Other.

THE Countess Merlin, in her memoirs of Madame Malibran, gives a charming instance of this:

"The presence," she says, "of Mademoiselle Sontag, at the Italian theatre, was fresh stimulus for Maria's talent, and contributed to its perfection. Each time that the former obtained a brilliant triumph, Maria wept, and exclaimed, '*Mon Dieu!* why does she sing so well?' then from these tears sprang a beauty and sublimity of harmony, of which the public had the benefit. It was the ardent desire of amateurs to hear these two charming artists sing together in the same opera; but they mutually feared each other, and for some time the much coveted gratification was deferred. One night they met at a concert at my house; a sort of plot had been laid, and toward the middle of the concert they were asked to sing the duet in '*Tancredi*.' For a few moments they showed fear, hesitation; but at last they yielded, and approached the piano, amidst the acclamations of all present. They both seemed agitated and disturbed, and observant of each other; but presently the conclusion of the symphony fixed their attention, and the duet began. The enthusiasm their singing excited was vivid, and so equally divided, that at the end of the duet, and in the midst of the applause, they gazed at each other, bewildered, delighted, astonished; and by a spontaneous movement, and involuntary attraction, their hands and lips met, and a kiss of peace was given and received with all the vivacity and sincerity of youth. The scene was charming, and has assuredly not been forgotten by those who witnessed it."

From "Education: Intellectual, Moral and Physical,"
by Herbert Spencer.

Intellectual Education.

THAT in education we should proceed from the simple to the complex, is a truth which has always been, to some extent, acted upon; not professedly, indeed, nor by any means consistently. The mind grows. Like all things that grow, it progresses from the homogeneous to the heterogeneous; and a normal training system, being an objective counterpart of this subjective process, must exhibit the like progression. Moreover, regarding it from this point of view, we may see that this formula has much wider applications than at first appears. For its *rational* involves not only that we should proceed from the single to the combined in the teaching of each branch of knowledge; but that we should do the like with knowledge as a whole. As the mind, consisting at first of but few active faculties, has its later-completed faculties successively awakened, and ultimately comes to have all its faculties in simultaneous action; it follows that our teaching should begin with but few subjects at once, and successively adding to these, should finally carry on all subjects abreast — that not only in its details should education proceed from the simple to the complex, but in its *ensemble* also.

To say that our lessons ought to start from the concrete and end in the abstract, may be considered as in part a repetition of the foregoing. Nevertheless it is a maxim that needs to be stated: if with no other view, then with the view of shewing in certain cases what are truly the simple and the complex. For, unfortunately, there has been much misunderstanding on this point. General formulas which men have devised to express groups of details, and which have severally simplified their conceptions by uniting many facts into one fact, they have supposed must simplify the conceptions of the child also; quite forgetting that a generalization is simple only in comparison with the whole mass of particular truths it comprehends — that it is more complex than any one of these truths taken singly — that only after many of these single truths have been acquired does the generalization ease the memory and help the reason — and that to the child not possessing these single truths it is necessarily a mystery. Thus confounding two kinds of simplification, teachers have constantly erred by setting out with "first principles": a proceeding essentially, though not apparently, at variance with the primary

rule; which implies that the mind should be introduced to principles through the medium of examples, and so should be led from the particular to the general — from the concrete to the abstract.

The education of the child must accord both in mode and arrangement with the education of mankind as considered historically; or in other words, the genesis of knowledge in the individual must follow the same course as the genesis of knowledge in the race. To M. Comte we believe society owes the enunciation of this doctrine — a doctrine which we may accept without committing ourselves to his theory of the genesis of knowledge, either in its causes or its order. In support of this doctrine two reasons may be assigned, either of them sufficient to establish it. One is deducible from the law of hereditary transmission as considered in its wider consequences. For if it be true that men exhibit likeness to ancestry both in aspect and character — if it be true that certain mental manifestations, as insanity, will occur in successive members of the same family at the same age — if, passing from individual cases in which the traits of many dead ancestors mixing with those of a few living ones greatly obscure the law, we turn to national types, and remark how the contrasts between them are persistent from age to age — if we remember that these respective types came from a common stock, and that hence the present marked differences between them must have arisen from the action of modifying circumstances upon successive generations who severally transmitted the accumulated effects to their descendants — if we find the differences to be now organic, so that the French child grows into a French man even when brought up among strangers — and if the general fact thus illustrated is true of the whole nature, intellect inclusive; then it follows that if there be an order in which the human race has mastered its various kinds of knowledge, there will arise in every child an aptitude to acquire these kinds of knowledge in the same order. So that even were the order intrinsically indifferent, it would facilitate education to lead the individual mind through the steps traversed by the general mind. But the order is *not* intrinsically indifferent; and hence the fundamental reason why education should be a repetition of civilization in little. It is alike provable that the historical sequence was, in its main outlines, a necessary one; and that the causes which determined it apply to the child as to the race. *Not to specify these causes in detail, it will suf-*

fice here to point out that, as the mind of humanity placed in the midst of phenomena and striving to comprehend them, has, after endless comparisons, speculations, experiments and theories, reached its present knowledge of each subject by a specific route; it may rationally be inferred that the relationship between mind and phenomena is such as to prevent this knowledge from being reached by any other route; and that as each child's mind stands in this same relationship to phenomena, they can be accessible to it only through the same route. Hence in deciding upon the right method of education, an inquiry into the method of civilization will help to guide us.

One of the conclusions to which such an inquiry leads is, that in each branch of instruction we should proceed from the empirical to the rational. A leading fact in human progress is, that every science is evolved out of its corresponding art. It results from the necessity we are under, both individually and as a race, of reaching the abstract by way of the concrete, that there must be practice and an accruing experience with its empirical generalizations, before there can be science. Science is organized knowledge; and before knowledge can be organized, some of it must first be possessed. Every study, therefore, should have a purely experimental introduction; and only after an ample fund of observations has been accumulated, should reasoning begin. As illustrative applications of this rule we may instance the modern course of placing grammar, not before language, but after it; or the ordinary custom of prefacing perspective by practical drawing.

A second corollary from the foregoing general principle, and one which cannot be too strenuously insisted upon, is, that in education the process of self-development should be encouraged to the fullest extent. Children should be led to make their own investigations, and to draw their own inferences. They should be *told* as little as possible, and induced to *discover* as much as possible. Humanity has progressed solely by self-instruction; and that to achieve the best results, each mind must progress somewhat after the same fashion, is continually proved by the marked success of self-made men. Those who have been brought up under the ordinary school-drill, and have carried away with them the idea that education is practicable only in that style, will think it hopeless to make children their own teachers. If, however, they will call to mind that the all-important know-

ledge of surrounding objects which a child gets in its early years is got without help — if they will remember that the child is self-taught in the use of its mother tongue — if they will estimate the amount of that experience of life, that out-of-school wisdom, which every boy gathers for himself — if they will mark the unusual intelligence of the uncared-for London *gamin*, as shown in all the directions in which his faculties have been tasked — if further, they will think how many minds have struggled up unaided, not only through the mysteries of our irrationally-planned *curriculum*, but through hosts of other obstacles besides; they will find it a not unreasonable conclusion, that if the subjects be put before him in right order and right form, any pupil of ordinary capacity will surmount his successive difficulties with but little assistance. Who indeed can watch the ceaseless observation, and inquiry and inference going on in a child's mind, or listen to its acute remarks on matters within the range of its faculties, without perceiving that these powers which it manifests, if brought to bear systematically upon any studies *within the same range*, would readily master them without help? This need for perpetual telling is the result of our stupidity, not of the child's. We drag it away from the facts in which it is interested, and which it is actively assimilating of itself; we put before it facts far too complex for it to understand, and therefore distasteful to it; finding that it will not voluntarily acquire these facts, we thrust them into its mind by force of threats and punishment; by thus denying the knowledge it craves, and cramming it with knowledge it cannot digest, we produce a morbid state of its faculties, and a consequent disgust for knowledge in general; and when, as a result partly of the stolid indolence we have brought on, and partly of still continued unfitness in its studies, the child can understand nothing without explanation, and becomes a mere passive recipient of our instruction, we infer that education must necessarily be carried on thus. Having, by our method, induced helplessness, we straightway make the helplessness a reason for our method. Clearly, then, the experience of pedagogues cannot rationally be quoted against the doctrine we are defending. And whoever sees this will see that we may safely follow the method of nature throughout — may, by a skillful ministration, make the mind as self-developing in its later stages as it is in its earlier ones; and that only by doing this can we produce *the highest power and activity*.

For the Schoolmaster.
The School Teacher.

THERE are many teachers considered well qualified to teach because their knowledge and wit in some particular branch of study is superior to their competitors. For instance: here is a teacher who has an extensive knowledge of mathematics, so far as performing examples is concerned, and the more difficult in this branch is that which interests him the most, while in many other studies he is hardly qualified to pass an examination; yet he is called a good scholar, and considered, by many, a competent teacher. Another is found to have no difficulty in parsing or analyzing the most difficult sentences; is quite familiar with Homer, Virgil and Cicero; but would utterly fail in giving instruction to a class of beginners in any branch so that they would understand it.

Teachers who are quick to conceive new ideas will expect the same of their pupils, and will be impatient in giving instructions to those who do not so readily understand. Because the thing looks very plain to the teacher's mind, he thinks that it does also, or should, to the child's. Says Charles Northend: "The business requires a heart full of devotion to the work, and a peculiar and happy faculty for interesting the young, and imparting instruction clearly, added to sound common sense and good judgment, and a certain *tact* emanating from all these — a faculty not quite describable, hardly imitable, but really indispensable." Teachers who understand human nature and have an extensive knowledge of men and things, and who are looking for opportunities to impart this knowledge to their pupils in their daily lessons, that they may interest while they instruct them, will be successful.

SHUNNOCK.

THE aborigines of Australia have no idea of a supreme divinity, the creator and governor of the world, the witness of their actions, and their future Judge. They have no objects of worship, even of a subordinate or inferior rank. In short, they have nothing whatever of the character of religion, or of religious observance, to distinguish them from the beasts that perish.

An old Dutchman, who, some years ago, was elected a member of the American Legislature, said, in his broken English style: "Ven I went to the lechislatur I tought I would find dem all Solomons dere; but I soon found dere was some as pick fools dere as I was."

Education.

It has become an universally conceded and indisputable fact, that in the diffusion of intelligence and the advancement of popular education, this country takes precedence of all others; to this, no doubt, is mainly attributable our greatness as a nation, and our prosperity as a people. To this, under heaven, we are indebted for our blessings, civil and religious, social and political. A free press, free speech and free institutions, have been made the basis of a system of national polity whereon is being built up a superstructure enduring and immovable as the firm foundation on which it rests.

Foremost in importance are justly to be ranked our common schools. To dwell upon the excellence of these institutions of learning, to speak of their beneficial effects and the mighty influence which they have exerted, and the great results which they are destined to accomplish, were to multiply words uselessly. These things have not been "done in a corner," but are "seen and known of all men." How different is the teaching of the present day when compared with that of even a preceding generation. We can remember well the nervous intonations of the old preceptor as we vainly endeavored to decipher the mysterious characters which scowled at us in formidable and black array from the dog-eared and dilapidated primer. We remember, too, the withering look of unbending severity with which he was wont to survey us from his elevated stool; all hilarity was frozen by a frown — all short-comings reprehended by the rod. In process of time, however, under his *birchen* administration, the worthy *didascalos* imagined that all requisite proficiency had been attained, and so we parted. "Good, easy man!" He was unconscious that the conclusions at which he had arrived were not inferences deduced from our own perception and apprehension of facts, not the result of convictions attested by our own judgment, but a blind reliance on the assertions of others — we had grasped at the shadow and lost the substance. As in an ill-fed fire, the barely ignited or decaying embers are smothered at the onset by the sudden pressure of useless and pernicious fuel, so were the first feeble glimmerings of undeveloped genius either overshadowed or totally extinguished by the heterogeneous and impenetrable mass thrown over and around them; whereas, had they been fanned with care and fed with judgment, the latent spark, kindling into activity and brightness, had glowed with rapidly in-

creasing lustre until it had leaped into an imperishable flame.

In this our day, the young, instead of being compelled to credit implicitly an abstract and dogmatical assertion, are led by first principles to examine it for themselves, to analyze its every part, to discover the connection between cause and effect, the premise and conclusion, and having done this, to reunité the disparted links into an unbroken and connected chain, harmonizing in every part.

We know of few things more pleasing or instructive than that of an hour's visit to one of our common schools. There will be found abundant material for meditation and study. There we may oftentimes read the history of the man in the lineaments of the child. Yet is not the face always the index of the heart or of the mind, neither is seeming dullness a proof of the absence of intelligence. In the rough, uncultivated spirits we may at times regard, there shall lurk that germ of intellectual wisdom, which, if rightly watched and tended, will shoot up into a mighty tree whose top shall pierce the clouds.

It behooves every friend of education, every friend of his country and of humanity at large, to aid all efforts which are being made to promote and prosper this great cause. Every added school house reared within our land strengthens and beautifies "our borders." These are the blessings which, wherever they descend, meander like fertilizing streams through a parched and thirsty ground, converting the arid waste into a fruitful field, yielding odorous shrubs and fragrant flowers and stately trees, the leaves whereof shall be "for the healing of the nations."—*Lynn Reporter*.

Genius and Child-like-ness.

We have often thought that these two characteristics are commonly found together, and the following comment on Hans Christian Andersen, the Danish author, by a reviewer in the *National Quarterly*, is confirmatory:

"The secret of Andersen's genius lies in the fact that he is *essentially and always a child*. He is a child in his memory, and in his fancy and feelings. His own time of childhood seems always to be present to his mind, furnishing incidents and characters to his purpose. He weaves bits of colors from his own history into the fabric of his story. The 'Red Shoes' is a reproduction in sterner form of his own little experience, as he tells it in his life: — 'An old

female tailor altered my deceased father's great-coat into a confirmation suit for me; never before had I worn so good a coat. I had also, for the first time in my life, a pair of boots. My delight was extremely great; my only fear was that everybody would not see them, and therefore I drew them up over my trousers, and thus marched through the church. The boots creaked and that inwardly pleased me, for thus the congregation would hear that they were new. My whole devotion was disturbed; I was aware of it, and it caused me a horrible pang of conscience that my thoughts should be as much with my new boots as with God. I prayed him earnestly from my heart to forgive me; and then, again, I thought of my boots."

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The Common School Teacher.—No. 4.

OTHER HELPS — MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT.

In the preceding article we have briefly referred to the helps of a teacher which are additional and subsidiary to the ordinary text-books. In doing so, we noticed only those helps which are regarded by all enlightened educators as the common school teacher's legitimate assistants—without which, no matter how richly he may be intellectually endowed, or how largely his faculty of aptness to teach may be developed, much of his labor will pass for naught, and many of his highest hopes be blasted.

There are other helps of analogous character not regarded as *essential* to the teacher's success, nor claimed to be capable of universal application, but, nevertheless, of sufficient importance to demand the thoughtful attention of our young friend, and, under favorable circumstances, to warrant a fair trial at his hands. The principal of these are: A school library; a set of outline maps; a cabinet of natural curiosities; philosophical apparatus; an assortment of arithmetical blocks; and a school newspaper. *All* of them assist the intelligent teacher in imparting instruction to his pupils—*some* of them might very properly have been introduced in the chapter which treated of the *attractions* of the school-room. With regard to the question, Who should supply these helps—the teacher, or his employers?—we answer *both*. The teacher who does not collect from nature's museum a dozen or two of her commonest curiosities; or fashion, in a leisure hour, at the shop of a neighboring mechanic, a syphon, or prism, or set of arithmetical blocks,—*is, in mild terms, sadly*

lacking in professional spirit. And, the board of directors, or the citizens of the district, who do not provide *some* of the remaining helps we have enumerated, are, to say the least of *them*, either excusable upon the plea of honest poverty, or else deplorably blind to the best interests of the helpless youth who are entrusted to their care.

And here, much as we approve of the educational instrumentalities enumerated, and others that might be mentioned, we would have the young teacher remember that *all* educational helps cannot be mathematically adjusted to the wants of every school-room, no more than all men could be made to subscribe to the same religious creed. Herein many zealous teachers go astray. The art of teaching school is not of the *exact* sciences, and it never will be. It is not a *Procrustean bed*, upon which whole schools may be laid, and the peculiar habits, dispositions, advantages, disadvantages, and surroundings of the pupils be summarily abbreviated or lengthened to suit the stereotyped regulations, or the settled convictions of the teacher. A rule or system may work well in one district, and be the source of much mischief in another; or, if there be no *other* objection to its introduction, various *physical* causes may exist which will render that result impossible. For instance, the reading of the *Bible* as a devotional exercise *might* be productive of good in a school composed of *Protestant* children, but the same practice would manifestly be the cause of as much evil, if transferred to a *Catholic* district. The common school teacher has no right to inculcate, in any manner whatever, his religious views on pupils whose parents profess an antagonistic faith.

Again: We are a believer in the doctrine that a *school library* is a good thing in every school-room, but we would not advise a teacher whose engagement embraced only a four months term, to attempt the establishment of such a library if it did not already exist. So, also, we have never known a teacher to disapprove the circulation, among pupils able to read, of a *day school paper*, like *Clark's School Visitor*; but, when the parents of pupils, in the language of a director, whose letter is now before us, "are so poor, that they can hardly keep bread in their houses over night," the instructor of those pupils would scarcely be justifiable in soliciting from them subscriptions to even Mr. Clark's excellent little monthly. The true teacher should be a thorough student of human nature, and should possess the faculty (and we incline to

the opinion, that all *may* possess it, if they choose) of adapting himself to the circumstances by which he is surrounded. We are *all* the creatures of circumstances — we do not make them. Our success in this world depends upon our taking advantage of *favorable* circumstances, refusing to be discouraged by the *unfavorable*, and always, as Carlyle expresses it, *doing the duty that lies nearest*.

So much by way of conclusion to a brief reference to some of the school-room helps of the earnest, intelligent teacher. We come now, by a natural transition, to notice the means he may employ in fitting himself for the practice of his profession.

No young teacher springs full-formed from the halls of any college, academy, or normal school. We hope we do not undervalue any of these honored instrumentalities in the formation of the teacher, and especially the one last named; but we are far from attaching to them that importance which many educational writers claim for them. Given a creditable proficiency in the branches of a collegiate, academic or normal school education, and the *teacher* is still but little else than the unchiseled statue in the block of marble. The host of incompetent *graduates* acting as teachers all over the land, whose education stopped with the receipt of their diplomas — if, indeed, it had ever commenced — fully attests the correctness of this opinion. To vary somewhat Poor Richard's trite saying: *Experience* keeps a dear school, but *teachers* will learn in no other, and scarce in that. In this they are not unlike the members of any other profession. How much faith do we all have in the physician who has grown gray in the treatment of all the ills to which flesh is heir; and how little in the beardless boy, who, for the first time, hangs up his shingle in front of the little frame building across the street. What young lawyer does not know how difficult a thing it is to obtain a respectable position at the bar; and what young minister does not quake with fear, lest some of his hearers should discover where he *borrowed* his last sermon. To leave the learned professions, and seek an illustration in the warring elements around us: How much more reliance is placed in the veteran officer, who earned promotion at the cannon's mouth, than in the "Brigadier General of Volunteers," who

" — never set a squadron in the field,
Nor the division of a battle knew
More than a spinster!"

The true school of the *soldier* is the tented field, with a bold, defiant enemy before him, to be beaten and subdued: the true school of the *teacher* is his own school-room, with a few choice educational works on his desk, and a certificate of membership in the county or district institute in his pocket. And what of each of these? This: —

I. *The School-Room*. Nineteen-twentieths of all the children that are born into the world are naturally honest, truthful, confiding, anxious to learn, and possessed of warm, loving hearts. Even the believers in the severest form of total depravity must admit this. *Little* children are the only innocent persons in this guilty world. They never defraud you; never hold the word of promise to the ear, and break it to the hope; never attempt to humble you that they may be exalted. That man has lived to little purpose, who has not learned much from little children. The more he becomes like them, the nearer does he approach to that perfection which is not of earth. But, alas, that all parents are not as little children! The *home influences* which surround the youth who fill our schools are as varied as the leaves of the forest when touched by the frosts of autumn. To be able to *govern* aright the pupils who compose any individual school requires an acquaintance with the manner in which those pupils are governed at home, as well as with every shade of their respective dispositions. To be able truly to *educate* their mental and moral faculties, and properly to *direct* their social and physical qualities, requires a knowledge of the kind of coöperation afforded or opposition interposed under the parental roof, as a daily personal contact with and sympathy for every pupil. This is the part of the teacher's education which cannot be learned at the institution in which he acquired his knowledge of mathematics and the languages — a feature of his calling which makes every new school a new world to him, and the mind of every new scholar a *terra inoognita* to be explored and peopled. We need scarcely add, as a conclusion to this paragraph, the reflection that will occur to the mind of every reader: that, the life of the teacher, from manhood to old age, is but a succession of *experiments* in the art of teaching; nor, the other thought — that, the more the teacher can bend his mental powers to the comprehension of his pupils, and the closer he can bring his own heart into sympathy with theirs, the greater will be his success in educating their understandings and ruling their spirits.

II. *Educational Works.* Many of our most promising teachers, we have observed, do not seem to be aware of the fact, that scores of books have been published in explanation of the teacher's duties and responsibilities, and in presentation of various theories of teaching and conducting a school. The number of those who do not take an educational journal is equally large. To all such we have this one word of friendly advice to give: There is such a thing as a *teacher's library*, embracing works of *practical* value, prepared by some of the leading educators of Europe and America. Those written by such American authors as David P. Page, Charles Northend, and George B. Emerson, are entirely devoted to the instruction of the *common school teacher*. He should not be without them. The wide-awake teacher will also feel the want of an *educational journal* that will acquaint him monthly with the educational transactions in his own State. and with the experience and suggestions of brother teachers around him, whose hands he may never be permitted to grasp. If the board of directors, by whom he is employed, do not pay him a salary sufficient to enable him to purchase the books and subscribe for the periodical we have indicated, he is the heir to a sore *misfortune*: if they *do* pay him a sufficient salary, and he neglects to feed his mind with the thoughts of those who have honored and still honor the profession of his choice, then is there a great *fault* committed, and our friend is not blameless.

III. *Institutes.* It is assumed that no argument is necessary to show the necessity of the Institute as the only profitable means for the inter-communication of thoughts and experience between common school teachers, and for the instruction of those members of the profession who have not been educated under the most favorable auspices. "Iron sharpeneth iron; so a man sharpeneth the countenance of a friend."

In the succeeding chapter, *What an Institute should be*, will engage our attention. J. M. S.

How Much do You Know About Rain?

ON that subject, here is a wise word or two: "Now, familiar as we are in practice with the subject of rain, we may well wonder how it could ever rain at all. Seeing that water is many hundred times heavier than air, by what means, it has been asked, does it climb into the atmosphere and continue floating in the thin altitudes which the cirri undoubtedly attain? How is the *vapor condensed into particles* which

become visible to the eye, and compose the various species of cloud? Are these particles simply drops of diminutive size — mere water-dust, if we may so speak — or are they vesicular, that is, *little balloons*, consisting of an aqueous film with air or vapor inclosed? What is it compels them to condense and occasionally to descend in torrents, accompanied by fearful explosions of electricity, or to freeze into lumps of ice as large as oranges or pumpkins? These, with many other questions, have been thorns in the sides of meteorologists, which theorists have endeavored to extract with various degrees of skill. Descartes supposed that the vesicles were little spheres of water rendered buoyant by the *materia subtilis* of space. Dr. Halley suggested that the rise of the vapor-storms might be due to a 'flatus, or warm spirit, or perhaps to a certain kind of matter whose *conatus* might be contrary to that of gravity.' Franklin contended that moisture was dissolved in the atmosphere as salt is dissolved in water; but that when repudiated, the aqueous particles still remained in suspension by adhering to the molecules of air. Mr. Rowell's hypothesis is: 'That the atoms of water, being so minute, are, when completely enveloped in their natural coatings of electricity, rendered so buoyant as to be liable, even when in their most condensed state, to be carried off by slight currents of air; but if expanded by heat, their capacity for electricity being increased by their increase of surface, they are then rendered buoyant at all times, and are buoyed up into the air by their coatings of electricity; when, if condensed, they become positively electrified, but are still buoyed up by the electricity, till, on the escape of the surcharge, the particles fall as rain.' In other words, the water-atoms are enabled to rise when their electric charge is augmented by heat, but compelled to fall when the surplus is withdrawn. If the vapor, when condensed by cold, should be in a position to part with a portion of its electricity, the particles will approach each other by virtue of their natural attraction, and thus become visible as clouds; but if the surcharge totally escapes, they will unite into large drops, and descend as rain."

A gentleman was once praising the personal charms of a very homely woman before Mr. Foote, the comedian, who whispered to him, "And why don't you lay claim to such an accomplished beauty?" "What right have I to her?" said the other. "Every right, by the law of nations, as the first discoverer!"

• For the Schoolmaster.

Hints in Regard to Conducting Recitations.

1. If you are to hear a recitation to-morrow, you wish to do it with credit to yourself and profit to your scholars. To enable you to do so, special preparation on your part is necessary. This may occupy you a few minutes, or an hour; it can often be done better without a book than with one. Of course, I suppose that no one would undertake to teach a subject, the main principles of which he had not mastered beforehand. Thus much preparation is imperative on every one who makes the slightest pretensions to be a teacher, and can be best obtained at some good school. Then there are many of the older teachers, who have that preparation that results from long familiarity with a subject, which they have frequently been over with their classes. Still, all, I think, will find it to their advantage and to that of their pupils, to review the morrow's lesson before entering the school-room. The memory is treacherous; this class differs from that of last term in the same subject, and different explanations, and different modes of presenting the subject, will suit it better. Besides, the teacher wishes to be a live teacher, to get a better knowledge of a subject each time he reviews it. In what way can he do this so well, as by previous preparation in each day's studies? For myself, whatever success I have had in teaching, has resulted, in a great degree, from pursuing this method.

Each recitation, as well as each hour of our life, embodies in itself the results of much previous preparation, of which we may, or may not be aware. The condition of the mind and of the body alike affect it. In nature we see results suddenly exhibiting themselves; in spring the trees, just now bare, are quickly covered with leaves; the autumnal woods, to careless observers, suddenly flame out in gorgeous dyes. But the botanist can tell you that in the fall before, the buds for spring were perfected, and the currents of sap in summer prepared the pigments that tint the autumnal scene.

The pupils should also prepare themselves beforehand. An hour's work out of school by the older children of our district schools, is always profitable, rarely injurious to them. By no means let your pupils acquire the habit of coming to the recitation with lessons but half learned. You must so conduct the recitation, as to allow the lazy ones no chance of escape.

2. You are now ready to call out a class, *(for I do not suppose that in a large public*

school you allow the class, in recitation time, to be seated at the desks.) How shall it be done? Some call for the class, and the members of it, without any order, and as they may get ready, ramble out to the recitation seat, or platform, where, after some debate and bickering, and change of places, they settle down, not quietly, though, into their positions. The teacher who allows such proceedings, generally complains that his school is hard to govern,—no wonder; at each recitation they are trained in disorder. Other teachers, (it is known by the order of exercises what class is to come out,) strike the bell once, and the class rises, each boy facing the way he is to go. At a second stroke of the bell, the first scholar in the right aisle, steps forward, according to directions previously given, to his place at the head of the class; the second in the aisle follows three paces behind; after the first aisle is empty, the second aisle is cleared in the same way, all ranging themselves in the class in the order in which they come out.

This takes but a few minutes; no disorder is manifested, and the scholar who will mind his teacher so far will give him but little trouble during the day. Some teachers range their pupils in the class according to height, and others according to rank; at the second tap of the bell, one steps to the head calling out, one; the next, from some other part of the room perhaps, calls out, two, &c. The method of bringing out a class may vary according to the age, number and discipline of its members, and according to the position of the aisles, desks and platforms. Now, suppose you wish to send this class back to the seats, the lesson for the next day having been assigned. At a signal, the scholars from one, or from both ends, file off in order to their seats. Let the methods of calling out a class and sending it back, ever insure order and despatch.

3. How shall the class walk so as to make the least noise? Some teachers have their scholars walk on tiptoe; in some private schools, all wear slippers; but it is well for all to learn to walk throwing the weight of the body upon the balls of the feet. Tell the aspiring youths who walk on their heels, making a loud noise, that that is not a sign of strength and manliness, but is indicative of weakness, and they will soon give it up.

4. If the pupils stand during the exercise, and it is often well to have them do so when spelling orally and in exercises in elocution, what is the position that gives most ease and is

elegant and healthful? Stand in a line, the weight of the body resting equally on both feet, head erect, shoulders and stomach back, the chest forward, the weight of the body on the balls of the feet, heels together and the arms at the side. If the scholars sit, let them sit erect, and keep both feet on the floor.

5. In what recitations, shall scholars carry out their books, and in what ones not? Generally, I would say, let books be carried out, when they will be needed in the recitation, by those who have their lessons perfectly. In history and in geometry books are not needed by the class, nor in Latin or English grammar, except in certain exercises. In spelling, no books are needed, except to pronounce the words at the close of the exercise.

But why, says some one, leave the books at the seats? Because there is a great temptation for many scholars to peep into their books, and as this is done furtively and against orders, deception and disobedience are practiced and become habits. Again, if they often look into the book, they are indirectly encouraged to make poor preparation in their lessons, which is bad; and again, depending on the book to help them out of difficulties, self-reliance is not developed, which also is bad.

And it may be asked, of how much advantage is that recitation to a class, in which, besides spelling and arithmetic, there is indirectly taught deception, disobedience, blundering and dependence.

The teacher generally needs no book, except a new one has just been introduced, and he should not, note well, carry his book into the class to learn the lesson himself there.

It might be well for teacher and for scholars to bear in mind, that in active business life, only that knowledge and those facts which a man carries about with him, in his head, are of much value to him. Why should it not be so in the school-room, and why should not the recitation prepare one for real life?

6. If the teacher stands, let it be in the manner already indicated for the scholar, except that he is free to move his hands and arms. Some teachers, at the commencement of a recitation, begin to walk to and fro, by degrees going faster and faster, until their classes either do not look at them, or, if they do, are half distracted. Let calmness and dignity preside at a recitation; both are favorable to clear and connected thought, as well as to good order. Some teachers prefer to stand during the whole of

the school session. It takes a strong person to do so, and some are injured by it. Others like to sit, which has its advantages also, while to some constitutions it is injurious. What is most healthy for the teacher must decide this matter. I like to change from one position to the other, but not too frequently. For the teacher to sit is more favorable to study, quiet and good order; sometimes standing conduces to vivacity or to impressiveness.

7. Get the attention of a class before beginning a recitation. Let the uneasy ones get still; the last slate or book find its resting place; let that boy who is looking on the floor, out of the window or behind him, recall his wandering thoughts to the business before him, and let all eyes be directed to the teacher before going on; a stop of a quarter of a minute may secure good attention for half an hour.—“A stitch in time saves nine.”

That boy who is to learn any trade or profession, or as a naturalist would learn of nature, must first learn to give attention, to notice; so in the recitation-room, and you want your pupils to form habits, as well as to get knowledge.

8. Teachers should be careful in their use of language; first, that it be not ungrammatical. When two persons who are together during much of the day, as two members of the same class, two chums at a boarding school, or members of a family, wish to correct their English, a good way is to criticise each other, and the addition of a fine of one cent for each mistake, is a great sharpener of the wits for preventing and detecting mistakes. Let the teacher correct the mistakes made by his scholars as they occur, or else, which is the better way, note them down and reserve the last ten minutes of each day for the whole school to correct them. Let the scholars also at the same time correct whatever errors in the use of language they have heard during the day. It is wonderful what interest they will feel in this exercise, in which they should be required to show why the phrases corrected are ungrammatical. Second, that their pronunciation be correct in respect to accent and the proper sounds of the vowels and consonants in each word. For this purpose use the method of criticism spoken of above, and a good pronouncing dictionary, Worcester's or Smart's. Third, that their statements be clear, embodying at the same time fullness and brevity. To have statements clear, ideas must be definite and well arranged, and then, if suitable words are selected, there will be a full and yet brief expression

of the thought. To express what we mean, all we mean, and nothing more, is an art so difficult and so rarely attained, that it cannot be expected of many teachers. Still, it is well to know which way perfection lies, so that we may tend towards it, if not reach it, and the difficulty of the task must not deter us from trying to make our language a correct picture of our thought. Expression as an art must be studied by teachers; it is a part of their trade; and I leave it for others to determine which is the better teacher, he who has ten ideas and can state none of them clearly, or he who has five and can fully express them.

This fullness of expression should be demanded of pupils. Do not let them, in reply to questions, give ends and fragments of sentences only, but make their replies propositions, sentences containing a subject and predicate. Fourth, that their articulation be distinct and that their voices have sufficient volume, or quantity. Distinctness of articulation is best obtained by practice on the elementary sounds, under a good teacher of elocution. By following this fourth direction in regard to language, we shall be enabled to follow the fifth. Fifth, avoid repetition of your questions and statements, and of the scholars' answers, except indeed at the close of some remarks, you wish to make a brief summary of what has been said. A great deal of time is lost in many schools while such questions and replies as these are passing to and fro between teacher and scholars: — I cannot hear; What did you say? Please repeat; I do not understand, now. This deadens interest and wastes time. First be sure that you speak so as to be easily heard by all; then, if the pupil does not hear, pass the question to the next. Speak not only so that your scholars may hear you if they will, but so that they cannot help it if they give attention. K.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

"DEAD AS A HERRING."—The herring is a delicate fish. Whenever it is taken out of the water, even though it receives no hurt, it gives a squeak and immediately expires; and though it be thrown instantly back into the water, it never recovers. Hence the proverb, "Dead as a herring."

AN IRISHMAN'S OPINION OF A YANKEE.—
"Bedad, if he was cast away on a desolate island he'd get up next mornin' an' go round sellin' maps to the inhabitants."

From the Independent.
The Bag of Beans.

IN a country village of New England there dwelt, not many years since, a lawyer and a physician, both intelligent, educated men; both members of the same church. They have both passed away, but not without doing some good in the world.

Just ten years ago this month, one frosty morning, there walked into that village a little boy, looking very tired and desolate. His garments were old, but neatly patched; his hands and face were clean and his hair smoothly combed; withal, there was about him a most attractive air of decent poverty.

So thought Dr. A., as he drew near the lad, who had seated himself upon a stone opposite his gate.

"What are you thinking about my little man?" he kindly asked.

The boy started, stared at the doctor with his great brown eyes, as much as to say, Can it be that such as you take any interest in me? then the tears began to trickle over his bronzed cheeks, and fell fast upon his patched garments.

The doctor was moved. He patted the boy gently on his head, and again asked what he was thinking of. The child seemed reassured, and, despite his choking sobs, exclaimed,

"I was thinking, if God would only open a way for me to become great and good like you, how I might help my dear mother, who is working her life out to get bread for her children."

The doctor himself now brushed a tear from his eye, and softly said, still keeping his hand upon the boy's head, "Good you can certainly become; great, too, in virtue; and all other greatness God is able to add thereto. Take heart, my son — *act* if you would *be*."

"Oh, sir, if *you* would only help me," exclaimed the lad, springing up and confronting his new-found friend with glowing face and sparkling eyes.

The graceful attitude of the child, the vigor of his expression, the seeming firmness of his purpose, turned the scale with the doctor. "I do not need you, child," he said, "but I will take you and give you a start; may God help you do the rest. You may be my chore-boy. I will board, clothe and teach you till you can do better. No thanks, lad; but take my horse to the stable and tend him carefully."

The boy silently obeyed, and his benefactor turned away. The hearts of both were full of gratitude — the child's for his new found home,

and its donor's for the rich assurance that he was but doing his Maker's bidding.

Neither the boy nor his patron had ever reason to regret the decision of that morning. The one proved a kind and considerate master, the other a careful, diligent servant. His evenings the boy eagerly spent in study, and quickly mastered all the branches taught in district schools. Here he might have stopped, despite his longings, and have passed the rest of his days in humble, honest poverty, had not a most trivial incident turned the whole current of his life.

One morning, the good doctor, in his daily visit to the stable, while rummaging in his hay-mow, stumbled upon a bag full of beans—a half bushel of nice, fresh beans. Here was a mystery. How came they there? To whom did they belong? Was there anything wrong about it? His wife could tell him nothing; so he next had recourse to James. The boy colored, hesitated, stammered, and then was silent altogether.

A faint suspicion flashed across the doctor's mind. Could it be? No! he flung the idea from him at once. Honesty was stamped upon every feature of that manly face.

The boy seemed to read, by intuition, his every thought. Again he put himself in the half-tragic attitude of his first appeal to the doctor, and exclaimed, "A thief! No; I'd sooner die than touch what did not belong to me. Those beans my mother saved to help me buy a Latin grammar with. Do you think I could be untrue to *such* a mother's teachings?"

"No, my lad," said the doctor, firmly grasping his hand, "and your mother may well be proud of *such* a son. Henceforth the way to learning shall be no thorny one to you, if friends can help you."

So it proved. The physician and the lawyer went hand in hand in such works of benevolence; the large heart of the one and the abundant means of the other went well together. Their kindly interest and good advice cheered on the struggling boy. Books he had in abundance; and when the time came for him to begin his student career amongst new scenes and faces, their influence found him a place where his native power could begin to carve out his destiny.

That destiny is now well assured. The forlorn, distrusting chore-boy is now the self-possessed, honored professor. Nature had given him a comely person, and the graces have been kind to him. His home is amongst the educa-

ted, the polished and the refined; yet he is not now untrue to his mother's teachings; and now even he grasps her homely hand just as warmly as he did on the day when he took from it the bag of beans wherewith to buy his first grammar.

As we have said before, his kind patrons have gone to their reward; went before the poor lad whom they cheered had rewarded, by his achievements, their kindly efforts; but we doubt not from heaven they look down with loving hearts upon this worthy son of their adoption.

Child of penury, God is no respecter of persons. He who runneth winneth the race.

Man of means, "Cast thy bread upon the waters." "God loveth a cheerful giver."

For the Schoolmaster.

Cyclopædias.

THE entire circle of education among the Greeks,—to whom we are indebted for this word, as well as for so much in learning and literature,—consisted in the "seven liberal arts and sciences," which constituted, with the ancients, the course of education for the higher classes of citizens. These seven arts and sciences were grammar, arithmetic, geometry, music, astronomy, dialectics and rhetoric. The word is now used as the name of a work designed to contain a summary of human knowledge, alphabetically arranged.

A nephew of the great Plato is supposed to have written the first Cyclopædia. His name was Speusippus, and he called his work *Diologoi ton peri ten Progmateian Ilamoion*. The *Historia Naturalis* of Pliny was a noted Cyclopædia of ancient times. It contained articles, longer or shorter, on twenty thousand matters of importance, as was stated in its preface, and the material was drawn from two thousand volumes. Astronomy, metaphysics, natural philosophy, botany, mineralogy, medical science, arts, agriculture, all came within the compass of his *Historia Naturalis*.

The earliest of the modern cyclopædias worthy of note was Alsted's elaborate work, published under the name of *Cursus Philosophici Encyclopædia*, four volumes, published at Herborn, 1620, and afterwards at Lyons in 1649, under the title of *Scientiarum Omnium Encyclopædia*. Soon after the year 1600 appeared the *De Dignitate et Augmentis Scientiarum*, and in 1620 the *Novum Organum Scientiarum* of Lord Bacon. These works were not large, but were rich and valuable in "deep and acute thinking," and

here we find the foundation of a logical arrangement of the sciences.

From this time cyclopædias have become numerous; some designed for the instruction of the young and uninformed, some written with the object of bringing universal knowledge into systematic order.

The first English cyclopædia was the *Lexicon Technicum*, or "An Universal Dictionary of the Arts and Sciences," by John Harris, (two volumes, London, 1706-10). This was principally limited to the mathematics and the physical sciences. The first great English cyclopædia of real merit was the "Cyclopædia" of Ephraim Chambers, (two large folio volumes, London, 1728). Within eighteen years five editions were published, and it was soon translated into French and Italian. The great modern work of this sort, "The Encyclopædia Britannica," was probably suggested by Dr. Coetlogou's "Universal History of Arts and Sciences," (London, 1745). The eighth and last edition of this immense work—the Encyclopædia Britannica,—has been published during the last eight years, by A. and C. Black, Edinburgh, and Little & Brown, Boston. It consists in twenty-two large quarto volumes, with supplement, general index, and numerous engravings. Elaborate articles have been furnished for this great work by the most distinguished English and American authors; but its high price will prevent it from receiving an extended circulation among the masses.

The list of the principal English and American cyclopædias which have appeared within about thirty years, makes an average of nearly one every year.

Of these, the *Encyclopedia Americana* is the most popular and the most widely circulated. It was first published in 1829-'32, in thirteen volumes. An appendix was added in 1847. This work was founded, principally, on the German *Conversations-Lexicon*, and cannot be called fully an American lexicon.

We are indebted to Messrs. George Ripley and Charles A. Dana, gentlemen well known to the American literary world, as editors, and to Messrs. D. Appleton & Co., as publishers, for the first complete American cyclopædia. We need not say that the work to which reference is here made, is the *New American Cyclopædia*. This valuable repository of useful knowledge will be comprised in sixteen volumes, the thirteenth of which is recently from the press. The work is edited with great ability and impartiality, and published in excellent style, at a low

price. It can be obtained at from \$3.00 to \$4.50 a volume, according to the style of binding.

It is very full in all its departments, comprising, among many others, history, geography, biography, politics, government, natural history, physiology, chemistry, botany, mineralogy, technology, and the useful application of science to the arts of life. There will be found, when the work is completed, something like forty thousand different articles, yet the whole is a model of neatness, compactness and condensation. At the same time the most lucid order prevails throughout the volumes. It gives us accurate and reliable information of the latest character. And the amount of matter is truly astonishing. It will consist in about twelve thousand pages, and each page contains about four times as many words as a page in ordinary books. The entire work will give, therefore, as much matter as a good library of two hundred common duodecimo volumes.

We notice particularly in the last volume (thirteenth) the articles on *Providence, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, William Penn, Peter the Great, Photography, Printing, Prison, Political Economy*. This volume includes the alphabet from *Par. to Red*.

As the work is now rapidly approaching completion, and—in spite of the general depression of the book business, owing to the war,—will probably be brought to a close within the coming year, we would urge upon our school committees and teachers the importance of securing it for our public schools. Fifty dollars cannot be expended more wisely or usefully than in the purchase of this library for every school in the State. It is a repository of an immense variety of useful information. M.

A Prayer.

If always on the thorns my feet must tread,
And heavy clouds hang darkly o'er my head;
If all the sunshine from my life depart,
And cold, gray ashes lie upon my heart;
If all my hopes, like swift-winged birds, must fly,
And every flower of promise droop and die;
If always through a mist of gathering tears
My eyes watch sadly for the coming years,
Oh, Father, when Death's river I've passed o'er,
And my feet stand upon the further shore,
Shall not Thy seal upon my forehead be,
"Perfect through suffering," purified by Thee?

MYRTA MAY.

WOMEN should set good examples, for the men are always following them.

From the Ohio Educational Monthly.
Of Hobbies and their Riders.

BY JOHN HANCOCK.

EVERY man, except here and there an individual made of raw clay, rides his hobby; and the chief difference between men is, that the hobbies of some are higher, and are ridden at a more reckless rate than those of others. It is a knowledge of the universality of this variety of the equine species that has enabled the greatest writer of modern fiction to set forth a character by trotting him up and down before us a few times on his hobby, that the picture, consistent in all its parts and perfect in its distribution of light and shade, is impressed on our memories forever as a living reality.

The peculiarity of hobby-riders is, that they all ride in a circle, and this circle is always growing narrower. And it is not void both of amusement and instruction, to look abroad over the face of the earth and see each man pacing around on his own little bark-mill circuit, solemnly persuaded that all men who do not travel in his narrow track, are much to be pitied and decidedly wrong-headed individuals.

But of all hobbies, those ridden by schoolmasters are the most obstinate, and oftenest found with the bits in their teeth.

Our friend Brown is a popular teacher in a large school. He is a remarkably adroit thrower of dust, which is apt to get into people's eyes, and, as a consequence, Brown looms up in the mist a very Socrates in the opinion of the world. Brown rides the sleekest and surest-footed of all hobbies—the moral suasion hobby. He believes, or says he does, (which amounts to pretty much the same thing with parents), that children are little angels; and that the older they grow the more angelic they become. (Provided they are brought up according to Brown's recipe.) Our friend is as much opposed to coercion in the government of a school, as the reddest of red-hot Secessionists is to coercion in the national government. His governing—if it can be called governing—is all done through those forms of the imperative mode which denote exhortation, entreaty and persuasion. Commanding is omitted as savoring of tyranny.

The sweetness of Brown's disposition has no parallel in the saccharine juices of nature. His good will toward all mankind in its juvenile years, like a perennial fountain, is always bubbling over and drenching every one who comes

within reach of his benevolent spray. The emotional part of his being seems, indeed, to have been developed out of all proportion to his intellectual. Whether his theory is the result of his one-sided development, or the development the result of the theory, is hard to be determined.

Brown is something of an orator also, and he never fails, as Chadband would say, "to improve the occasion," that will, with any sort of decency, permit him to give utterance to the great thoughts and fervent feelings that are always surging about within him. To see him at the morning opening of his school ride up to his pupils on his hobby, like a lone and valiant knight charging upon a solid column of infantry, and discharge at their angelic heads and hearts a perfect hail-storm of moral axioms and reflections,—pumping up from a convenient and capacious reservoir that water to the eyes he deems necessary to convince them of the immensity of the love he has for them and their welfare, is a performance worth considering.

It will scarcely be believed, after all this show of interest and the lecturing upon morals they receive, that our friend's pupils with a perversity certainly unbecoming angelic natures, seem inclined to hold him and his preaching in derision; and his tears even do not escape slighting remark. The fact is, his hobby does not seem to work well in the long run (and hobbies somehow never do seem to work well in the long run). His school is the worst possible. For lack of the strong restraining arm, profanity, obscenity and falsehood have but little check, except such as home influences may exert. As a teacher, his pupils view him with contempt. In short, were we a trustee of schools, Brown is the last man we should permit to ride into our bailiwick and stall his horse there.

Our friend Smith rides a horse of an entirely different color. In him the outer man is a fair type of the inner spirit. To look at him you might suppose him to be a lineal descendant of the Old Man of the Mountain, so granitic and gritty is his whole appearance. He don't believe in sentiment and moral preaching to school children. He does believe in total depravity, and practices on that belief. If he sets one portion of scripture before all others, it is the advice of Solomon in regard to the use of the rod. He is just, but his justice is not much tempered with the sweet qualities of mercy. He prides himself on his sternness. The order of his school is excellent, but his recitations are

dull and uninteresting. The truth is, he has disciplined the life out of his pupils. Their very intellects seem to be paralyzed into a sort of torpor by some invisible but terrible pressure. But as the most despotic government is preferable to anarchy, so Smith's school far excels that of his co-laborer, Brown.

Then we have hobbyists in instruction as well as government. Of all who ride an instruction hobby, Jones rides the tallest—the mathematical. Although a member of church in good standing, Jones indulges himself at times in a kind of harmless and unmeaning scepticism; for he will tell you in his moments of confidence, in a hesitating kind of way, that he don't know, after all, whether there are any truths except those capable of mathematical demonstration. In fact, he is pretty well assured in his own mind there are not. Hence, with a narrowness of mind inexcusable, he underestimates the value of all other knowledge, and does what he can, both directly and indirectly, to induce his pupils to sympathize with his limited views.

He states to them with an intense degree of grim satisfaction that partakes of the nature of enthusiasm, that among the vast number of errors floating about in the universe, there are a few established truths—truths which no one can doubt; such as that the three angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles, and the square of the hypotenuse is equal to the squares of the other two sides. And you would almost be persuaded to conclude from his earnest manner, that it is the consolation derived from the knowledge of the solidity of these and kindred truths, that alone renders life tolerable. Holding out to his pupils, as an incentive, that they may attain the giddy intellectual height of one day demonstrating these truths for themselves, or, failing that, become expert business men, he leads their tender minds up and down long columns of figures, to arrive at whose sum would make the head of a practical accountant ache. He puts them through problems in mental arithmetic, to which the old Greek problem of Achilles and the Tortoise is the merest child's play. Goods are bought in the most extraordinary quantities, running into fractions "that like a wounded snake, drag their slow length along," which, after most affecting losses, are sold at prices expressed in other fractions most complex, both common and decimal, by which a per cent. is gained on the whole that would *make even an army contractor open his eyes.* Thus Jones leads his pupils from one perplexing

and useless difficulty to another, until he has introduced them to the virtues and powers of the unknown x . Having reached which point, especially if he be teaching in a country district, his scholars leave school, inwardly persuaded they have reached the Ultima Thule of human knowledge,—but in fact knowing almost nothing that can be of the least value to them in the conduct of life. Without a taste for any literature above the flashiest and trashiest, they are neither the wiser nor the better for their so-called education.

We have yet enough hobbies left to equip a regiment of cavalry, which we should like to trot out for your readers' inspection, but you could ill afford the ground for their exhibition. We therefore close with this moral: Schoolmasters who are riding hobbies should dismount and walk the remainder of their days. The true teacher is a harmoniously developed man—a sound man—running into no absurd excesses; equally removed from a puling sentimentality or a harsh severity in his government; not narrow in his instruction, but loving all knowledge with a generous enthusiasm; and, above all, strongly addicted to common sense.

Love's Look.

BY ROSE E. DALTON.

A LOOK there is that gains the heart—it is the look of Love;
Surpassing far vain Pleasure's smile, its source is from above.
Howe'er proud Beauty may enchant, it often will betray.
And Pleasure's smile may be a light to lead us far astray.

The look of love which kindness gives, can bid our cares depart.
It sheds anew the dawn of hope within the grieving heart;
Warmly it lingers in the breast, and stamps its signet there;
It animates the drooping thought and drives away despair.

Can heav'n afford a purer joy, than sweet affection feels,
When mid the strife and wounds of life it cherishes and heals?
The look of Love imparts a ray so cheering and divine,
That, surely, it must be the beam which lights up heaven's shrine.

For the Schoolmaster.

Teaching the Deaf-Dumb in Common Schools.

BY JOE, THE JERSEY MUTE.

I have now before me number four of volume one of the *Gallaudet Guide and Deaf Mutes' Companion*.—by the way, too many names for one paper, and a small sheet at that. This journal professes to be "independent in all things, devoted to the interests of deaf mutes in particular," but designed for the entertainment of the rest of mankind; and, in a word, to keep both deaf and hearing people advised of what is going on at home and abroad. The name Gallaudet is derived from an eminent teacher, who introduced into America the system of teaching the deaf-dumb to read and write. I may here remark that this Gallaudet married his first ward, Sophia Fowler; and lived to see one of his sons (hearing, of course,) married to a deaf lady, who was educated at the New York Institution.

The number of the *Guide* before me, leads off with a very interesting sketch of the deaf-dumb Randolph, nephew of the celebrated John Randolph, copied, it seems, from the New York *Ledger*. He died of heart-break, caused by disappointment in love. On page two, I notice a little bit of composition by "D. P. Clark, Peterboro', N. H.," headed "How to make good yeast," which is well worded, considering the infirmity of the writer. Next comes a column and a quarter of *talk* on "The deaf and dumb going to school with hearing and speaking children," by A. Wolverine, a deaf mute, whose parents were also deaf, both of them. Wolverine studied under the late Dr. Gallaudet six years, at the end of which period he returned home to live with his parents. Desirous to learn more, he went to a *district school*, and there prosecuted his studies, surrounded by hearing-speaking children of both sexes, some of whom, he says, could finger-chat with him. The communication aforesaid is novel, as being the result of his efforts at self-improvement in such a school. Being well written, and having no deaf-dumb idiom, although perhaps it wants a little improvement, no one who has had much experience in deaf-dumb teaching would suspect it to be the production of a mute.

"To begin with my early education," writes Wolverine, "at the age of six years I followed my playmates plumb into the school-house, where I was first taught penmanship. I afterwards went to it occasionally, and there learned

the elements of arithmetic. The teacher was not acquainted with the sign language, and hence he taught me arithmetic, especially division, in an awkward way.

"From my parents I learned addition, multiplication and subtraction, and then the construction of short sentences before I went to Hartford. At the age of twelve, I was placed at the Hartford school, and remained there for six years. The winter following my dismissal from school I went to the district school, which was, in most respects, as good as the Academy. There I found myself among young ladies and gentlemen, who were as little acquainted with the branches of study they were entering upon as I had been, previous to my admittance as a scholar in Hartford."

Further on he writes: "I carefully read a lesson in history, and then, without looking in the book, wrote an abstract of what I had read, including the dates of the occurrences as I found them in the book. The abstract was by the teacher looked over and corrected; and sometimes alterations were made in style. In arithmetic, I was sometimes assisted by the teacher, who, in writing, proposed questions in addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. And I sometimes exercised myself in essay-writing, with what success it is not for me to tell.

"Out of school-hours, far from being blue-devilled, I carried on commerce in writing with the boys and girls, several of whom could use the finger language. I had to reduce my ideas to writing in this communion of mind with mind; so that I came on rapidly in my learning. Thus did I progress in the acquisition of written language, my stock of sign-language, that curse of the educated deaf-dumb, growing small by degrees and beautifully less."

So far Wolverine. His success in language goes to show that if his fellow-sufferers do likewise, they will reap a golden harvest. I can see no reason why the parents of mute children who have been educated in the mute schools, should not send them to the common school, together with hearing children, during the winter months. As a general thing, the compositions of the educated mutes are intensely deaf-dumb in form of expression; that is to say, characterized by the peculiarities of thought inseparably connected with the deaf-dumb condition in which they are born. By going to the common school and writing *per force* at all times with hearing scholars, the educated mutes will be enabled to overcome their deaf-dumbness.

The case of the late Miss Ellen G. Martin is an instance in point. Educated in a mute school, where thinking by signs, and not by words, as is customary with hearing people, cannot fail to deepen the deaf-dumbisms in thought, sentiment and form of expression,—educated, I say, in such a school, Miss Martin thought and wrote like a *bona fide* deaf mute; but during her visit to her relatives, her mother wisely made her go daily to the common school, until she had fairly advanced out of the deaf-dumb condition. By many persons who have seen her letters, she is pronounced a beautiful writer.

I have read some portions of a letter written by a deaf lady down South, who, having left a mute school, with her mind none the better for discipline, was obliged to confine herself to the use of the finger language wholly—no signs whatever at all. In her we now see the scholar and the lady joined, with the supplement of the good woman, which is all that humanity can arrive at in this imperfect state. It is remarked of John R. Burnet, the deaf poet of New Jersey, and author of the "Tales of the Deaf and Dumb," published several years ago, that the surprising accuracy of language to which he has attained, is accounted for by the efforts of his sister, Emma, to correct and perfect his literary taste. The same may be said of "Charlotte Elizabeth," author of "Jack, the Happy Mute."

In cities, it is observed that the advanced mutes are not much in the habit of mixing with speaking people, not so much on account of their aversion to mingling in their society, as of the fact that they have to spell out, letter by letter, by the fingers. Their association with their own kind devours no small portion of their limited (in consequence of their deaf-dumbness) knowledge of written language. The habit of sign-making indisposes the mind for thinking by words and taking in words as they are spelled or written out.

Let the parents or friends of educated mutes place them in the common school after their term at the mute institution is ended, and the teacher will *clean* them of the errors of speech current among the deaf-dumb. I do not believe in the necessity for sign-making on the part of those mutes who have left the deaf-dumb school. Let them address themselves to the task of comparing their own language with that which is universal, and rooting out its deaf-dumb idioms.

I once conversed with two mute sisters, whose conversation was carried on by the fingers, although their grammatical blunders were judi-

cious enough to set a whole nation in roars of laughter. Not a sign did they remember, from their great distance from the period when they first learned a sign for a common noun. If their friends had sent them to the common school after the completion of their asylum education, they might have made a respectable figure in society. I mean here, respectable in reference to the command of language. Not long ago, I received a letter from a former pupil, who boasted no strong mind. The manner, however, showed that the writer had gone the whole length of the expression, "*perseverentia vincet omnia*." After a stay of seven years in a mute institution, she was made to attend a district school, where the errors of her former education were weeded out. In her case, as in some others, a district school education perfects what a mute asylum education begins.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Wingless Grasshopper of California.

THE following account of this singular *sextupid* is taken from a contribution to the last annual report of the Smithsonian Institute, and is from the pen of Edward P. Vulliamy, M. D., U. S. A.

It will be observed that this adds one other member of the animal kingdom to the short list of *tobacco eaters*. We have now the tobacco worm, man, and the wingless grasshopper, in this strange list. It is worthy of notice, however, that this grasshopper that eats tobacco with such impunity is entirely unaffected by poisonous agents. It is certainly no argument in favor of the human tobacco chewer, nor an apology for him, that a California grasshopper, that will "devour with avidity and perfect impunity" vegetables smeared with a "mixture of strychnia, arsenic, corrosive sublimate, croton oil and lamp oil," will eat tobacco without injury. It *might*, nevertheless, prove injurious to the human system. X.

"Grasshoppers have infested many parts of California from the earliest days of which there is any record, and they have appeared so regularly and abundantly as to be regarded in some places as an ineradicable plague. The Digger Indians seem to have been long habituated to use them as an article of food, and relish them as much as any kind of subsistence they have. The winged as well as the wingless variety are collected by them for winter use. Both kinds are captured by sinking large pits and firing the grass in a large circle around them. To escape

the fire and smoke, the grasshoppers take to the pit, when they are killed by combustibles being thrown upon them. Formerly, the winged grasshoppers were common in Shasta valley; but in the summer of 1856 they gave way to the large wingless kind, which have increased in numbers every year since, till the summer of 1860, when they were more destructive than ever before. During the last three years they have appeared in Fall River valley, but were only in destructive number last summer. They always have their origin in sheltered parts of valleys, where the temperature is higher in winter than the neighboring districts over which they roam in summer. In Shasta valley they breed from or near alkaline flats, where the ground never freezes; and in Fall River valley, they invariably start from the most sheltered part of it. In Shasta valley, after they commence migrating, they always go to the south or southwestward; while in Fall River valley, their course is northward. In both places they leave mountains behind them and traverse a level district; and this seems to be the only cause of the difference of direction pursued by them in the two valleys. In migrating they are turned aside by mountains. Though they have been in Shasta valley since the summer of 1856, they have been confined to it, and have not crossed any of the mountains which separate it from other valleys. The windings of a river may turn them from their course a little; but if a stream lay across their route, or if embraced in a bend of it, they plunge into the water, in which vast numbers are destroyed, though a few get over. They can be driven by any rattling noise, and are very timid, alarm spreading rapidly through a considerable host of them; but the fright once over, they invariably return to their original course.

"A house is no impediment to them. They do not turn aside, but go over it. They devour all kinds of vegetation, but prefer the cultivated annuals, and do not seem sensitive to poisonous agents; tobacco and atramonium are eaten by them voraciously. A gentleman of Yreka smeared some vegetables with a mixture of strychnia, arsenic, corrosive sublimate, croton oil and lamp oil, and they devoured them with avidity and perfect impunity. Nor do they seem sensible to pain. If cut in two parts, the head often continues eating; and if legs enough are left, it crawls off readily and remains active for several hours. The hinder part, severed from the fore part, has been seen to insert the ovipositor into the ground as if to deposit eggs."

For the Schoolmaster.
Moral Instruction.

THAT part of an education which will be of the most benefit to the child in coming life is often neglected by many of our teachers. I refer to moral culture, and the formation of right habits. The child should be taught the difference between right and wrong, truth and error, and the habits of acting from principle formed, so that the imagination, passions and affections may be taught to bow to the decisions of reason, and be governed by the dictates of an enlightened, cultivated conscience. The motives to be addressed, in controlling and directing the elementary education of children, should be such as we should wish to have control their actions in after life. Let the distinction between right and wrong be clearly explained, and right principles constantly strengthened by a direct appeal to conscience and God's law, with a firm belief that his grace will accompany the exertions and bless the efforts of the faithful teacher, and much may be done to prepare the child to act nobly, fearlessly and for the right in all the future. Moral culture has been, and is, too much neglected in all our systems of education. The mind is disciplined, stored with facts, and often abounding in knowledge, to become the greater curse to itself, its friends and society. The heart is neglected, and where might be truth, rectitude and righteousness, there is a great moral desert, where selfishness, passion and lust hold their sway. Let a sound morality be inculcated in our schools, not by books alone, but by the education of conscience, the constant reference of all actions to the standard of right. Let there be taught a scrupulous regard for truth and honesty even in little things; let the sacred rights of property, and the duties of man to man, be rightly understood; let virtue and the power of obligations be felt and enthroned supreme in all the relations of society; then will the state of education be far different from what it is at present, and nearer what it should be.

SHANNOCK.

A bad-tempered judge was annoyed by an old gentleman who had a very chronic cough, and after repeatedly desiring the crier to keep the court quiet, at length angrily told the offending gentleman that he would fine him one hundred pounds if he did not cease coughing, when he was met with the reply: "I will give your lordship two hundred pounds if you will stop it for me."

From the Providence Evening Press, Dec. 11.
Franklin Lyceum Lectures.

THE POPULAR MOVEMENT DEFINED; ITS COURSE
TRACED, AND ITS CAUSE VINDICATED, BY

REV. DR. E. H. CHAPIN.

Notwithstanding the unfavorable state of the weather, a crowded audience attended last evening upon the third lecture of the Lyceum course. The subject of Rev. Dr. Chapin's masterly discourse was "The People." We present a few extracts as specimens of its vigor and profundity of thought and its energy and eloquence of expression.

The question, said Dr. C., embarrasses us at the outset, "Who are the people?" We are told that the word is used to designate the vulgar, the mass of illiterate persons. It is curious to discover how this phrase, which is so common in our talk, covers an indistinct and subtle and shifting reality. Its meaning changes in different lands, and becomes hardly the same fact in an Oriental despotism and a Western Republic. It signifies one thing in the adulation of the demagogue, and another in the emphasis of aristocratic contempt; one thing as the synonym of liberty and order, and another as the most awful chaos of seething forces and Saurian monstrosities ever unveiled in the processes of Providence; two different pictures, when, as Carlyle exhibits them, "they speak in the hieroglyphic of petition and are answered with the gallows forty feet high, or when they speak with pike and guillotine and tumbrils clattering through the highway of death."

I am really inclined to believe that, as a palpable, tangible fact, there is no such thing as "the people." "The people" is a historically working force, appearing in masses of men, operating through masses of men; but it is not masses of men. "The people" is an abstraction. That which is appreciable in history under that name, as the working force or sentiment of the people, the will of the people, the power of the people, is no more identical with any particular number or multitude than gravity is identical with the stone, or heat with the flame.

This phrase is inseparable from vast organization; and in proportion as the organization of masses is perfect we are able to recognize the fact and ideal of the people. Therefore, we can hardly dignify with this majestic title every wild tribe and wandering herd that helps to make up the mosaic of humanity. Our attention need not be taken up with what the Yankee would call "all creation." We need have regard only to organization in which there is life. Let us then direct attention more specifically to the people in their living functions. What I have to say may be brought under three divisions—the people first, as a source of power; second, as a tribunal of judgment, and third, as a sovereignty of the future.

A distinguished writer of our day speaks of "the raw material of human nature." The expression really opens a refreshing train of thoughts. We see

so much of human nature around us cooked crisp, and flabby, spiced, garnished and over-done in theological ovens; in political stew-pans; in fashionable skill-ets, it makes one's heart rejoice to know there is unspoiled produce in the market. Of course, where there is the most human nature there is the most raw material, and therefore the most possibility of use that the development of the raw material may confer. This indicates what may be said of the people as a source of power. For there would be but little use in discussing the exclusively political bearings of the phrase "popular power." That phrase has a significance beyond the question of the divine right of kings and the authenticity of social order. If rude warriors enthroned their sovereign upon shields, it was probably because he had more of the raw material in him, both for good and evil. In the people are embosomed the springs of the world's life, unquarried mines of the world's possibilities. Of course it is possibility for evil as well as for good. Whatever of meanness, or vice, or demonic rage may be precipitated into history, lurks and threatens there. Whatever of liberty and order, of loyalty and faith, may take a luminous shape in the earth and achieve its ends, its fountain-head is there.

The power of the people comes out in what we call national character. Often it is manifested only in shrewd worldly phrases, political sharpness, aptness in trade, material enterprise. In such cases there are proof-marks of its real depth and vigor. The leading minds of a nation are never more than adequate measures of the intrinsic power of the nation.

While these may rise, isolated from the main power, and flow down from such individualities, still they indicate the level above which they have grown, as the tree indicates the soil. It has been well said, no great general ever arose out of a nation of cowards, no great statesman out of a nation of fools, no great artist out of a nation of materialists. It is only where the germs of popular life are quickened by mighty events that great men become mighty, that the commonwealth sparkles with constellated names, that the entire atmosphere round about is electric with noble life. When a nation, long accustomed to the arts of peace, moving in the order of tranquil times, is suddenly struck by the shock of danger and summoned to rescue the very ark of its inheritance, then you may see laid bare, underneath the common soil of events, the roots of an individual greatness. Then the leader is no more advanced, the hero is no more heroic than the people. He may be in them as a guiding impulse and a joyful inspiration. But more are they in him. He leaps from the womb of their personality. His courage is tingling in their blood. His energy concentrates their entire will. His spirit is the interpretation of the people's will and the people's power.

Nobody will deny the attractiveness of the natural landscape; but nobody will deny its greater attractiveness when associated with human effort and sacrifice. Men will turn away from the loveliest scenery

visit the battlefields of ideas. So the shores of the upper Potomac put on a more sacred look because here the General fell cheering his flag, and the blood of heroes mingled with the crimson of the autumn sunset.

I maintain then that genius, which I assume to be the most undeniable form of great power that enters the world, not only often has originated among the people, but drawn from them the material of its greatest elements; the richest mine in which it works the concrete man, opening there the revelation of a common nature and the hidden lines of common experience. It introduces us to new types of manhood; enriches the world; brings us Lear to touch the ring of exhaustless pity, and Falstaff to open the gates of exhaustless fun. We are attracted to this not because it gives us, not because it is so rare, but because there are so many like them. It bequeaths us such affections and temper in order that we may learn there such realities to love. We become more conscious how rich humanity is in rough diamonds.

I acknowledge then, most freely, that the world is largely carried forward by the agency of individuals. I admit that the people originate little or nothing, till they are the source of power from which individuals emerge, and by which they do their work; a power that works for them, because of them. They are kept for good or evil that silent pressure of influence, tighter than single objects. They pass by Courts and Statesmen, and take little note of them. The eloquence that maintains the People's Cause, sucks from a fountain as exhaustless as the sea.

DeTocqueville says no man had any suspicion of what the French revolution was to become until it took place. Arthur Young thought it would increase existing privileges. We know that it annihilated them. Others supposed that France would be exalted from the system of nations. It is well known that France became greater than ever. So small is the value of predictions of sagacious minds concerning the results of popular movements. Still we know something of the power of the people in their united action. We know that upon the face of the earth there is no tyranny so hateful as popular tyranny, no despotism like that of fickle passion and lawless will, nothing that howls for blood and rushes for violence so terrible as the tiger fury of the mob. We have an idea of what this movement is, when in some great hour of peril the electric blast of patriotism rends the veil from the heavens and the mass stands bristling before us, a nation in arms. But has anybody yet disclosed all that abides in the depths of the popular life. The familiar aspects of the city weary us with monotonous reiteration. But here are undiscovered capacities of sinning, sorrowing and suffering, of love and faith, of meanness, deceitfulness and appalling vice. He who hunts for them will find more than he anticipates. But let us not be unjust to those noble constituents of our nature, the countless charities, the uncomplaining heroisms, the martyrdoms that have no palm.

The power of the people is mightier than institutions, greater than social distinctions. Institutions are to be valued, as they help or hinder this. All true progress is not to be rated by the multiplication of external conveniences, but by the development of manhood; not by the material grandeur of States, but by the welfare of the people. Modes of government are secondary problems. There are conditions where despotism, transitionally working toward command, is better than freedom inconsiderately snatched and weakly applied. Coronets and constitutions are questions of form. With something more than political significance we may consider the people a source of power.

In what sense or to what extent may the people be regarded as a tribunal of judgment? This will show the pertinency of the remarks with which I commenced the lecture, for it is essential to the question of definition. Understanding by the people, an unorganized, chaotic mass, there is no tribunal of judgment. When we find a sentiment which fulfills the condition of the old maxim, "being by all, always and everywhere expressed," we should carefully pause before we refuse to accept it. The task of difficulty is to get an induction—to get that which is constant in the expression of popular sentiment.

Leaving the more comprehensive problem, let us examine the decision of the popular mind in specific forms. There is a tribunal of popular judgment concerning Literature and Art. The popular tale of the day may have as frightful a title and as meteoric covers, as any that was ever pored over by servant girls in a dim irreligious light, or by furtive apprentices under the shade of three cent cigars.

The amount of what is called solid reading will vary with the education of the mass. The statistics of free libraries would furnish evidence that the reading of the people does not compare unfavorably with the reading of the few. What really is the popular literature, not of the day, but of the world and of the time—the literature which pierces through the different strata of intelligence, clear down to the commonest level of mind, and lives there in these sentiments and household words forever? Such are the greater works. This constitutes the patent of greatness. They touch the core of the country. While they sweep through the greatness of humanity, we are not touching the literature which is created by the people—a few songs and ballads, grown like wild strawberries in the fields of the olden time. The people will yet throw out that much advertised for, but unpurchaseable article, the national anthem, when the popular heart is glowing with the inspiration of mighty events. The people are dazzled by meretricious qualities, yet they recognize and reverence the excellent when it really appears to them, and sometimes approve it before any higher criticism. We may adopt the verdict of the masses where the favor of the critics is withheld.

There is another form in which popular judgment crops out: those fatherless sayings which pass from

lip to lip and from land to land—which Lord Chesterfield declared no man ever uses, but in which Lord Bacon said were discovered the genius, wit and spirit of a nation. Popular judgment appears in proverbs—small, pithy bits of circulating wisdom. They bear the image and superscription of the human mind, and indicate their coinage in human nature.

Nothing is so much to be dreaded, nothing is so threatening to the experiment of popular institutions, as the play of men in power upon the lowest elements of society. And yet even this must be carried on through a deceit of names. An honest treason cannot operate in masses of men. When known as treason, the appeal of country, faith and liberty rouses their enthusiasm. Therefore treason, when it works through multitudes, must assume some guise of patriotism or religion. Rebellion must appear to be a struggle for sacred rights. Treason is a favorite spirit of managers, leaders and intriguers, invoked in select secrecy. It is poured into the popular ear under some far nobler name. The people, left to a clear idea in regard to the interests of the country which they know to be a portion of themselves, are always loyal. Indeed, they feel an assault upon that, more than an assault upon themselves. It is an encroachment upon the very corporate interest with which the fibres of their being are intertwined. The mysterious instinct of patriotism rises to the very brim of the crisis before their roused spirit, party limitations shrivel as before a sheet of fire, and the entire life of the people sparkles and quivers in the flag.

It is to what we call public opinion that we are accustomed to look for popular verdicts. It varies with times and places, carries the attention off from common grounds of thought and feeling, and raises the complex question that centres upon the famous maxim *vox populi vox Dei*. Is the voice of the people the voice of God. There are instances when we may answer no. Yet that voice grows audible in the fixed conviction of the vast majority.

New doctrines gain the readiest hearing among the common people. There are less selfish interests to be disturbed. Ignorance is a protection against many considerations which embarrass the judgment of the educated. This by no means proves the truth of the new doctrine. The common people heard the Great Teacher gladly, but the proof is in the Divine word uttered, not in the many who receive it. The voice of God brings its own witness to the people, and does not need the ratification of the people. No true word rests upon the sanction of mere numbers. And here arises a right which must be maintained as strenuously against the encroachments of the multitude as against the encroachments of the mob—the right of private judgment and individuality.

In the people we behold the sovereignty of the future. This sovereignty is predicated upon every leading indication of the present. It is predicated upon the advance of civilization. The latter is indicated *by two things; material improvement and eternal elevation.*

Material improvement has been the great characteristic of the time. Almost every scientific discovery turns into some instrument for the help of the people. Every great discovery is for democratic use. No feudal knight ever mounted such a steed as the people's steam-horse, or rode in such an imperial chariot as that which plies its wings of fire to carry the laborer on his way. The telegraph sends common life through the great masses of the world. Stretched over mighty continents, and above the abyss of disunion; through the clouds of war it becomes the loyal pulse of the nation, beating from sea to sea.

Nor is the other element of popular civilization wanting—the internal element. Some may say we have lost in depth what we have gained in width. Still it is better that knowledge should enrich the common soil than crystalize in the cold silence of a few developed minds.

It is enough to be warranted by the indications of the past and the present, and the palpable fact that the elements of power are passing from the few to the many, in saying that of the people is the sovereignty of the future. But there is a moral element to be considered—the element of endurance and sacrifice.

"The Book of the Prince," says a writer, "is closed forever, and the book of the people is as yet unwritten;" but there are those who seem to prophesy for that book a brief record and a speedy close; who coldly abandon ours in this our day of tribulation, and think they already behold its fearful apocalypse terminating in darkness and in blood. Perhaps they can imagine they see the shadows of disrowned empires and ruined republics moving to meet us in our coming, crying out from their awful depths "art thou become weak as we are? art thou become like unto us?" What in this intense crisis may occur to us as a nation is hidden among the secrets of Providence. But if we have correctly traced the process of the past and of the present, then is the sovereignty of the people among the revelations of Providence. It must be very hasty reasoning or the dictate of malicious hatred that leads men to predict the permanent defeat of our great cause from our present national crisis. It is like predicting the destruction of the solar system, because of the perturbations of a planet. The popular movement is too vast, too irresistible, too tidal to be turned back.

The discord is not between Democratic elements themselves, but between them and those feudal incongruities still entangled with them. In a special sense ours is a national cause. The immediate cause is the instinct of patriotism bursting forth to defend the land dear to us by many memories and many hopes; an instinct which is not so rare that men should be surprised at its indications. There are men who ask us to give up our nation. Even *Punch*, that has hitherto defended with all its humor the great interests of humanity, wonders at our going to war for the Union. But we are doing what any people would do who deserve the name of nation. Those

who deprecate our zeal would be the last to surrender their country to the hands of violence, or suffer the least assault on the nationality that binds it together.

These are the dark days of the nation, but they are its sublime days, and constitute a season in that process through which a people, instead of falling, may more nobly rise. We needed the trial. With our energy and enterprise; with our flag on every sea; from the golden coast of the Pacific to the many masted shores of the Atlantic; from the grain fields of the West to the staples of the South, we have been a brilliant people, a smart people, but hardly a great people; for a moral element is necessary to this result. Vast material organization and diffusion, active intellectual life, are not enough. We must have patience, heroism and self-sacrifice. Heretofore, as a people, we have been like a rude and powerful boy, heir to a marvellous inheritance, with scarce a check on our comfort or our will. We must undergo that heat, pain and pressure—the tragic doom by which other nations have been smelted into manhood. Not by boundless prosperity, but by suffering, must be wrought out the Celtic loyalty and the Saxon strength.

When a nation cannot separate its enthusiasm from its agony; when the fair soil sweats blood; when mothers sit and think of their unshrouded sons lying stark on the distant battle plain, then swells the matured life of that nation; then come out the massive features of the people; then settles the look of majesty on the land. No great sentiment like religious conviction or love of country that can counteract the selfish and narrowing tendencies of a mean devotion to material objects and personal comfort, can ever powerfully operate until something occurs to make us feel the value of its objects.

Love of country, like all other love, is a deep habitual sentiment. The members of a prospered family, move by the gravitation of their love but do not feel its force. Let sickness touch one of these members, and then the full tide of that love is felt in the heart; ministrations of unsparring sacrifice are awakened; carelessness grows considerate; the rude voice gentle. True love becomes a mighty consciousness when danger threatens its object. Men feel how dear their country is when danger threatens that. Then indeed our selfish, narrowing tendencies dissolve, and the entire people rising to meet the emergency, rises in the noble scale of manhood. The great age of the Republic is not its commercial age, its literary age, its age of conquest and discovery, or, if such a thing may be, even golden age. The great age of a Republic is its martyr age. Who has seen those files of young armed soldiers marching through the streets and not had his eyes filled with tears as he thought how short has been the time since those were children's hands resting on mothers' bosoms, and how, somewhere hearts are yearning for them, and over every one of them there hovers a holy prayer. Yet who has not had his heart thrill with exultation because the country has been deemed worthy of such heroism, and because there is so much heroism worthy of the country.

Yes, this is a national movement; the movement of that patriotic sentiment that rises to repel an assault upon national life, a movement that identifies the nation with the soil, the land, the whole land, the united inheritance of those two contending, but yet married sections,—married by this wedding ring of glittering lakes and ocean waves, with Washington's grave for its signet. What therefore God hath joined together, let no man put asunder.

At the last public dinner given to Wm. Pitt, when his health was offered complimenting him for having saved the country, his reply was, that the country had saved herself through her own exertions. Any other country might do so by following its example; a mean country is that which will not make the attempt.

Yet it is not merely a national movement—a movement for the people in that broad sense in which I have used the term. Mr. Groat has described the power of Democratic sentiment to keep the fire of patriotism burning in a Republic when it was powerless under any other form of government. This very movement vindicates and does not impeach the people. It cannot be denied that in a peculiar sense this country represents the principles of "the people" everywhere. No where else is true popular liberty enjoyed with such fullness. The very soil seems to have been set apart for such instruction. Asia is the continent of germs. Europe the continent of diffusion, America the continent of results. Hidden long from the vision of the world, it was at last thrown open for the grand experiment of the people governed by the people.

The conditions necessary to solve the relations of man to power, have been most amply furnished by Democratic institutions. The possibility of their duration must depend upon freedom of action and individual exertion. Why are not these the prominent characteristics of our national movement of all others? What then if these institutions planted here should fail? But they will not fail. God helping us, we do not mean to let them fail. What if we should grow impatient, weary and despairing in our work? But we must not. The struggle of the hour is the same old struggle the people have carried on for ages, the contest of the despised many with the domineering few, of democratic idlers with aristocratic assumption, the profounder conflict which underlies the rest, the conflict of the popular element with those who essentially despise it. You may make slavery the cause, but it is deeper than that. Look at those suggestions and ordinances in the State of Virginia of depriving the people of power, and you see the whole cause of the movement.

The cause of the people will not fail; nor, as we trust in Providence, will we fail in maintaining it. With reverence may it be said, not only of a single race, but of all mankind, with the Red Sea before, and the Promised Land beyond,—to mankind at large has issued the Divine decree to go forward. Look at the argument of history, sometimes proceeding in silence, sometimes in the Divine strength of

virtue and truth, served by every fact and every instrument. What need to name the men who have conducted it: Hampden marching to the strife with tyranny, with no steps backward; Russel riding to execution, with liberty ever riding by his side; the noble blood of its crusade makes red the grass of Lexington, and yet again, straight from hereditary veins, crimson the streets of Baltimore. Now it sets its propositions in the shape of bayonets, and speaks from the lips of cannon. To us has it been given to lead in this great argument of history. The flag first stricken down on the soil of South Carolina, now waves once more on that soil, in proud assertion of supremacy. Take the flag that symbolises this movement of the whole world, so venerable, so beautiful, so bright with memory and hope; pluck it from the hand of treachery! snatch it from the insult of rebel guns! unfurl it! lift it high! carry it forward! forward for the good old cause—the cause of the people!

The Marvels of a Seed.

HAVE you ever considered how wonderful a thing the seed of a plant is? It is the miracle of miracles. God said, "Let there be plants yielding seed;" and it is further added, each one "after his kind."

The great naturalist, Cuvier, thought that the germs of all past, present and future generations of seeds were contained one within the other, as if packed in a succession of boxes. Other learned men have explained this mystery in a different way. But what signify all their explanations? Let them explain it as they will, the wonder remains the same, and we must look upon the reproduction of the seed as a continual miracle.

Is there upon earth a machine, is there a palace, is there even a city, which contains so much that is wonderful as is inclosed in a single little seed—one grain of corn, one little brown apple-seed, one small seed of a tree, picked up, perhaps, by a sparrow for her little ones, the smallest seed of a poppy or a blue-bell, or even one of the seeds that are so small that they float about in the air, invisible to our eyes? Ah! there is a world of marvel and brilliant beauties hidden in each of these tiny seeds. Consider their immense number, the perfect separation of the different kinds, their power of life and resurrection, and their wonderful fruitfulness!

Consider, first, their number. About a hundred and fifty years ago, the celebrated Linnæus, who has been called "the father of botany," reckoned about eight thousand different kinds of plants; and he then thought that the whole number existing could not much exceed ten thousand. But, a hundred years after him, M. deCandolle, of Geneva, described forty thousand kinds of plants, and he supposed it possible that the number might even amount to one hundred thousand.

Well, let me ask you, have these one hundred

thousand kinds of plants ever failed to bear the right seed? Have they ever deceived us? Has a seed of wheat ever yielded barley, or a seed of a poppy grown up into a sun-flower? Has a sycamore-tree ever sprung from an acorn, or a beech-tree from a chestnut? A little bird may carry away the small seed of a sycamore in its beak to feed its nestlings, and on the way may drop it on the ground. The tiny seed may spring up and grow where it fell, unnoticed, and sixty years after it may become a magnificent tree, under which the flocks of the valleys and their shepherds may rest in the shade.

Consider, next, the wonderful power of life and resurrection bestowed on the seeds of plants, so that they may be preserved from year to year, and even from century to century.

Let a child put a few seeds in a draw and shut them up, and sixty years afterwards, when his hair is white and his step tottering, let him take one of these seeds and sow it in the ground, and soon after he will see it spring up into new life, and become a young, fresh, beautiful plant.

M. Jouannet relates, that, in the year 1835, several old Celtic tombs were discovered near Bergorac. Under the head of each of the dead bodies there was found a small, square stone or brick, with a hole in it, containing a few seeds, which had been placed there beside the dead by the heathen friends who had buried them, perhaps fifteen hundred or seventeen hundred years before. These seeds were carefully sowed by those who found them; and what do you think was seen to spring up from the dust of the dead?—beautiful sun-flowers, blue corn-flowers, and clover, bearing blossoms as bright and sweet as those which are woven into wreaths by the merry children now playing in our fields.

Some years ago, a vase, hermetically sealed, was found in a mummy-pit in Egypt, by the English traveller, Wilkinson, who sent it to the British Museum. The librarian there, having unfortunately broken it, discovered in it a few grains of wheat and one or two peas, old, wrinkled and as hard as stone. The peas were planted carefully under glass on the fourth of June, 1844, and at the end of thirty days these old seeds were seen to spring up into new life. They had been buried, probably, about three thousand years ago, perhaps in the time of Moses, and had slept all that long time, apparently dead, yet still living in the dust of the tomb.—GAUSSEN.

NOTHING can convey more consolation and support to a high-minded, virtuous woman, in the midst of sorrow and misfortunes, than the recollection of the conduct of her sex under similar circumstances. When encompassed by dangers, difficulties or death, women have continued to adhere with fidelity to their husbands' fortunes under every vicissitude.

Philology.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to HENRY CLARK, Pawtucket, R. I.

LITERARY men or lovers of books are invited to contribute to this department. The contributor will be expected to communicate his name and address to the editor of this department, as above, which need not be published unless at the wish of the contributor. Writers are requested to confine their essays within the usual bounds assigned to the department—two printed pages. It will not be convenient to return manuscript.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Brevity of Literary Fame.

ONE may learn a sad lesson on the brief continuance of literary fame by perusing a record of literary men. Among a long list of those whose names were once well known, very few, comparatively, have descended to our time. Some enjoyed a brilliant popularity, and almost as soon as they were dead were forgotten; others were remembered a few years and then passed gradually out of view. So that, at the present day, we can count upon very few of those who lived much more than three hundred years ago. A score of names would include them all. During the period about the time of the reign of Elizabeth, in England, a class of literature arose that is almost entirely extinct, and so late as at the beginning of the reign of Charles II., little more than two hundred years ago, we can reckon but a very small number whose names have descended to us as writers of distinction. Fox, Spenser, Shakspeare, Ben Jonson, Beaumont and Fletcher, Hooker, Lord Bacon and Jeremy Taylor nearly complete the list. For Caxton is chiefly known to us in connection with printing; Wiclif and Latimer, Tyndale and Coverdale, as identified with religious controversies; More and Ascham have no very general fame as writers of English, and the very morning-star of literature, Dan Chaucer, is too far distant to be generally admired.

We can account for the decadence of the older writers, whose works are in language so ancient as not to be readily modernized, and for the utter extinction, during two hundred years of book-making, of a large part of that literature current in the time of Elizabeth distinguished for its fantastic character. There is also a partial reason for the preservation of such names as have been already mentioned, in their euphonious character, since they sound sweet to the ear and fill up the measure of harmonious lines of poetry. Still, it would not be an unprofitable study for some good man to seek for still another element of decay in the fame of popular writers, in their personal deficiency in what goes to make up the stature of a true man. We know that much of our respect for living writers grows out of the excellence of their personal character.

No one can say how much greater and nobler the name of Byron might have become, had he added to an exquisite poetical taste the charms of an upright and honorable life. This poet has embalmed the memory of a writer who is to-day almost unknown to readers of poetry in general, and, apologizing for an abrupt transition from ancient to modern time, I cite an illustration of my theme from the example of Churchill. During four years Churchill was one of the most conspicuous persons in England, and certainly, Mr. Southey says, the most popular poet. "The freedom and vigor of his versification," says the same author, "in which sense was never sacrificed to sound, which was never tricked out with tinsel, nor spangled with false ornaments, which, whatever were its faults, was free from nonsense, and which always expressed in genuine English, its clear meaning, contributed to prepare the way for a better taste than prevailed during Pope's undisputed supremacy."

Churchill's name is now seldom mentioned among the names of poets, although he lived about the time of Cowper—1741 to 1764. He was buried at Dover, and the stone erected to his memory has engraved upon it a line from one of his own poems, which is a hint of the kind of life he led:—

"Life to the last enjoyed, here Churchill lies."

In the select works of Lord Byron are some expressive lines, purporting to be a literal rendering of a fact; probably occurring on Byron's visit to Churchill's grave:

"I stood beside the grave of him who blazed
The comet of a season, and I saw
The humblest of all sepulchres, and gazed
With not the less of sorrow and of awe
On that neglected turf and quiet stone,
With name no clearer than the names unknown
Which lay unread around it, and I asked
The Gardener of that ground, why it might be
That for this plant strangers his memory tasked
Through the thick deaths of half a century;
And thus he answered,—“Well, I do not know
Why frequent travellers turn to pilgrims so;
He died before my day of sextonship,
And I had not the digging of his grave.”
And is this all? I thought, and do we rip
The veil of Immortality? and crave
I know not what of honor and of light
Through unborn ages, to endure this blight?
So soon and so successful?” . . .

All men are not alike profligate; all writers are not alike unsuccessful in attaining to lasting remembrance, yet it is too true that this life of Churchill is but an epitome of the lives and fame of the majority of men who seek for literary honors. The crown either fades on their brow or is thrown away as a useless thing after they are dead. Fame, like Fortune, sought too earnestly forsakes him who pursues her:

"For when men trusten hire, than wol she faille,
And cover hire bright face with a cloude."

For the Schoolmaster.
The Use of the Dot-[.].

THE period is the most simple point. Yet there are writers who misuse it, doubtless from ignorance of its proper place, which is at the end of a sentence.

As a mere dot, the character is used after every abbreviated word, and as a period, after headings, sub-heads, signatures, names and descriptions of books, and frequently after phrases that complete sentences when considered in connection with clauses that precede them.

For the present purpose, I shall define a sentence to be an assertion by words of a thought that is complete in itself. And the period indicates the close of such an assertion.

If there be no inconsistency in the preceding definition of the sentence, then the use of the dot as a period is plain. It need not be confounded with that of the colon, for the latter indicates a brief suspension of the thought, which remains then incomplete, till the reader passes over to the succeeding portion of the assertion.

As to the logical character of the period, it indicates a pause in the reflections of both reader and writer. It signifies the cessation of our thought and intimates either that the whole series is finished or that the succeeding one will straitly present itself for consideration. It is a kind of mental resting place, where the reader can stop to reflect and where the writer finishes one thought and prepares for stating another.

The period can hardly be considered a rhetorical sign. The voice does not uniformly rise or fall as the reader reads aloud from the text. There is no uniform length of pause as the reader passes the sign. Sometimes it receives only the quality of inflection often given at a comma; sometimes it is passed over with a brief cessation of voice. The rule to lower the voice when the eye of an elocutionist reaches a period in the course of practice, is merely a rough direction suited for the use of children who cannot understand the real use of the sign.

The period is an honest, direct stop-mark. It can scarcely occur too often in a good literary production, for when it appears often, the writer is sure to be readily understood if he minds his words as well as his stops. It is suggestive of straightforward stories, though they may be blunt and plain. It assures the reader that he may stop awhile and contemplate a little the thought just coming through his mind. The colon gives him no rest: it precipitates him into some remaining portion of a thought then left unfinished. The semi-colon is indicative of tediousness:—of long sentences divided and subdivided; of recapitulations, and repetitions, compounded ideas and long, weary sentences. Commend lovers of easy, interesting reading to a text punctuated sparsely in commas and plentifully in periods. They must find a period within a couple of short lines of the beginning, and close upon the conclusion of an *essay*, before they are ready to believe it at first *sight to be worthy of their consideration*.

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. CADY, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.
A Peep into the Dock—No. 3.

OUR readers will remember that we are making a short excursion in a row-boat. Passing out from the dock in a westerly direction, and crossing a channel something more than an eighth of a mile wide, and leaving, on our right, a small, thatchy island of but little economical value except to furnish materials for building wharves, or for some like purpose, we are now just entering a second channel between two low, projecting points, formed by the outcropping of the slate rocks which underlie no inconsiderable portion of our State, and which contain considerable quantities of coal. In two or three places within the State veins have been penetrated which yield coal of very fair quality. The mine in Portsmouth, on the northern portion of the island of Rhode Island, is probably the most valuable that has yet been opened. This is constantly and vigorously worked, and yields several thousands of tons annually. In different places, where the slate formation, which contains the coal veins, crops out along the borders of Narraganset bay, very beautiful impressions of ferns and flowers are found, as well as in those places where the strata have been pierced in searching for coal. These impressions are found on the western shore of Popposquash in the town of Bristol, near Vue de l'Eau in Barrington, at Central Falls, at the coal mine in Portsmouth, and probably in other places in the State. At the point we have reached in our excursion I am not aware that the rocks contain them. They seem, however, to subserve a different purpose, nothing less, in fact, than that of furnishing a favorite resort for the unconscious disciples of Izac Walton; or, if not to the legitimate followers of this prince of anglers, at least to those of kindred instincts. On a summer morning the sight of from half a dozen to a dozen skiffs anchored at convenient distances along the channel, whose crews are intent upon drawing in the silvery, iridescent "scup," is by no means uncommon. The slate-stone floor of the channel, with its soft carpet of sand swept by the passing tide, seems to form a favorite haunt of this beautiful fish, whose capture very happily unites the advantages of pleasure and profit.

When I first witnessed, several years ago, the mode of fishing practiced in Narraganset bay, it was to me a rare novelty. Having always been accustomed to the use of the fishing rod in taking trout and other small brook and river fish, and having been obliged to employ much caution in the use even of this to avoid frightening the denizens that I was anxious to ensnare, it seemed to

ie, in my simplicity, when I saw the anglers holding their lines in their hands, either that they must be "verdant" to expect to catch fish by such a process, or that the fish must be so, to allow themselves thus to be caught. So it sometimes happens that the absurdity, which we fancy that we discover in another, appertains to ourselves when we are expected to it.

"O wad some power the giftie gie us."

I have long since become convinced that the dwellers along the bright waters of Narraganset have a more correct understanding of many another and more important art than that of fishing. But this subject brings so freshly to mind an incident of my college life, that I am tempted to give it a passing notice. It occurred while I was spending a few days of the long vacation with my "chum," in the city of Newport. I think a certain worthy divine, — best esteemed for his refined classic tastes and the unostentatious exercise of his many social and moral excellencies, by those who know him best — has not lost all recollection of it. I was taking a morning walk, with my "chum," along the bold, bluff shore which extends southward from the

First Beach, so familiar to the Newport bathers, when we found the clergyman, with a single companion, fishing for "tautog" from some of the large rocks which skirt the shore along the beetling bluff. We had but just clambered down the cliff and obtained a footing near the clergyman and his companion, when the latter, having attached a fresh bait to his hook, was giving it, together with the sinker and several feet of the line, a few spirited circumgyrations around his own head to acquire momentum for the final cast, when he brought it round with full force in contact with that of the reverend gentleman, the hook plunging through hat and scalp and lodging upon the cranium, while the line parting at the hook, allowed the sinker to carry it out some thirty feet or more and plunge into the water. Whether the act was at all the more hazardous from the fact that the affrighted perpetrator bore the name of Hazard, I will not venture to assert, neither will I assure the reader that some mistaken "genie" from the domains of Neptune guided the ill-fated hook against the head of Mr. Brooks, under the misapprehension that it had really become "*waters*," but I am ready to bear witness, hat of all who were present he seemed to suffer least from alarm, and much to his credit on such an occasion, that his eyes did not become "*a fountain of tears*." Did not modesty forbid — "*pudor vetat*" — I would claim a single grain of praise for penetrating, with the blade of a pocket knife down to the ugly barb and removing it from its unlucky position, with a tolerably steady hand. May the reverend gentleman yet live many a year to find his wonted relaxation, from the more arduous duties of his profession, within hearing of the breakers as they come

roaring in upon the beach, or in gathering from the pages of Schiller and Goethe, and kindred spirits, the poetic fire and inspiration which shed a lustre upon his own. And my old chum, Bush, with whom passed away the winged days of college life, with never a jarring word or bitter thought between us — let the praise of it be awarded to that magnanimity and serene temper of his which allow the finger of time to write but slowly the wrinkles upon his brow — he, too, is a reverend man. Long may the bold shores — where Channing, the philanthropist, drank in the inspiration during his boyish years which afterward made him famous in both hemispheres, — witness his annual return, while that heart, which warms alike with Christian sympathy toward the converted Brahmin,* or the humblest form that enshrines the germs of an endless life, shall lose nothing of its vital force.

Beyond the fishing ground the shore upon the right turns with a rather sharp angle toward the north. Bending our course around this angle, we have in prospect before us the two bridges which span the arm of Narraganset bay known as Barrington or Palmer's river. The tide in the bay is already at its ebb, but owing to the accumulation of water above the bridges, the current is still passing downward with considerable velocity. We should be glad to prolong our excursion beyond the bridges. Shall we make the attempt? Just below the first bridge, which we are now approaching, the water is eddying with some force; still, we find no great difficulty in propelling our boat against the current. Under the bridge the surface is almost entirely smooth, and just beyond, the water appears as tranquil as a summer lake. A few smart strokes of the oars will carry us past the eddies, and when we have gained the smooth water our remaining task will be easy. But no. The difficulty will prove greatest just at the point where we should have expected to have surmounted it. Along the farther line of the bridge, and a little beyond, where the water is smooth and appears to move with moderate velocity, the descent is the most abrupt. In fact, it is equivalent, in effect, to that of water passing over a precipice of the height of at least some eighteen inches. To carry our boat over this will be much the most difficult part of our task. I think we will not make the attempt. I have some salutary recollections of once making the experiment and meeting with results that have cured me of all inclination for its repetition. On

* The converted Brahmin, Gangooly, during his visit to the United States, was, for a considerable time, the guest of Mr. Bush.

I also find the following in a number of the Independent that has come to hand while I am writing:

The American correspondent of the London News, whose admirable letters are doing much to diffuse in England a correct apprehension of the true state of affairs in this country is understood to be Rev. Solon W. Bush, of Medfield, Mass."

that occasion I was in a boat with a single companion, and we determined to shoot through under one of the arches, which we thought to accomplish by dint of vigorous rowing. With each an oar in hand we pushed forward until we had reached smooth water, but here our speed suddenly slackened—then ceased altogether. More than half our boat was beyond the farther line of the bridge; but here one of the "thole-pins" broke, and the oarage being thus all thrown upon one side, the current turned the boat and brought its side violently against a pier, tilted it so that the water came up to the gun-wale, and finally shot us, like an arrow, down stream through the arch adjacent to that through which we had just passed.

When we consider the momentum of water in motion, it is surprising how fish can make their way, with such apparent ease, against a strong current, or even scale mill-dams and ascend waterfalls. It was among my boyish observations that the trout, in the brook where I was wont to fish, uniformly availed themselves of the occasion of a freshet, or rain storm, by which the water was considerably raised, to make their way up stream, so that I was tolerably sure of seeing the speckled captives dangle at the extremity of my birchen rod in places where, but a day or two before, they were sought in vain. There were several places where the water passed over ledges of rocks, among which were trough-like pools, in which I was pretty sure "to have a bite." In two places in particular,—the first where the roots of three large trees, a silver birch, a beach and a sugar maple, stretched their roots along the rocks and helped to form a kind of dam over which the water poured into a small cove, with a fall some four feet; the second in a meadow, where a detached clump of trees, surrounding "the big maple," furnished another fall and basin of about the same dimensions,—I was disappointed if several successive casts of the line were not each rewarded by an addition to the "string." These fish were obviously arrested, for a time, in their upward passage by the fall above. Whether this was the result of choice, or of unsuccessful efforts to ascend, may be uncertain; the probabilities, however, are in favor of the latter. By patient watching it was often possible to witness a successful ascent. That other kinds of fish ascend falls of a much greater height is a familiar fact. Salmon are famous for feats of this kind; I have never heard, however, of their challenging competition in reverse Sam Patch leaps at Niagara.

It was during the period of my juvenile fishing experience and observations that I was greatly delighted by the perusal of Prof. Silliman's "Journal of Travels in England, Holland and Scotland." In reading his account of a storm that occurred during his passage across the Atlantic, I was particularly struck with his description of the violence *with which the waves struck against the vessel, and with his assertion that it seemed incredible*

that any structure of wood and iron could withstand such terrific shocks. Still I but very feebly appreciated the force of his language until I had seen a ship in process of erection. When I saw the beams and ribs of sturdy oak placed layer upon layer, thickly braced and bound and bolted, longitudinally, vertically and transversely, covered inside and outside with heavy plank, so firmly pinned and spiked as to give to the entire hull the strength of more than entire solidity, I felt inclined to reverse the verdict of the distinguished Professor, and to declare that no violence of winds and waves could make a successful assault upon a fabric of such mighty strength. The simple fact, however, that the strongest vessel, when stranded, will go to pieces within a few hours, under the tremendous blows dealt by the waves, sets all reasoning and conjecture at defiance, and compels us to acknowledge the awful force of the powers of nature in their unfettered action, while we contemplate the spectacle with silent wonder. So the poet:—

"Roll on thou deep and dark blue ocean—roll!

The oak leviathans, whose huge ribs make
Their clay creator the vain title take
Of lord of thee, and arbiter of war;
These are thy toys, and as the snowy flake,
They melt into thy yeast of waves, which mar
Alike the Armada's pride, and spoils of Trafalgar."

I. P. C.

How the Japanese Restore Faded Flowers.

AFTER a bouquet is drooping beyond all remedies of fresh water, the Japanese can bring it back to all its first glory by a simple and seemingly most destructive operation. A writer at Nagasaki says: I had received, some days ago, a delightful bunch of flowers from a Japanese acquaintance. They continued to live in their beauty for nearly two weeks, when at last they faded. Just as I was about to have them thrown away, the same gentleman (Japanese gentleman) came to see me. I showed him the faded flowers, and told him that, though lasting a long time, they had become useless. "Oh, no," said he, "only put the ends of the stems into the fire, and they will be as good as before." I was incredulous; so he took them himself, and held the stems' ends in the fire until they were completely charred. This was in the morning. At evening they were again looking fresh and vigorous, and have continued so for another week. What may be the true agent in this reviving process, I am unable to determine fully; whether it be heat driving once more the juices into the very leaflet and veins, or whether it be the bountiful supply of carbon furnished by the charring. I am inclined, however, to the latter cause, as the full effect was not produced till some eight hours afterward, and as it seems that, if the heat was the principal agent, it must have been sooner followed by visible changes.

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster. Questions in Arithmetic.

I.

1. Two numbers are to each other as 2 to 11, and the quotient of the greater divided by the less is $5\frac{1}{2}$, what are the numbers?

2. Two-fifths of a number multiplied by 4 1-6 exceeds the number by 8, what is the number?

3. The product of two numbers is $2345\frac{1}{2}$, the multiplier is to the multiplicand as 3 is to 5; what are the numbers?

4. The product of two numbers divided by $\frac{1}{2}$ of the multiplicand equals $3\frac{1}{2}$ times the difference between the multiplier and the multiplicand; the multiplicand is 9, what is the product?

5. The base of a right angled triangle is to the perpendicular as 3 to 4, and the hypotenuse is 540 feet, what is the base and perpendicular?

6. Five-sixths of the base of a right angled triangle equals $\frac{1}{2}$ of the perpendicular, and their difference is 12; what is the hypotenuse?

7. The difference between the side and diagonal of a square is 1.4142 feet, what is the side?

8. The difference between the present worth and amount of a sum of money for 10 months is \$21.60, what is the sum?

9. The difference between the face and amount of a note due in 1 year 3 months and 13 days, at $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest is \$76.18; what is the face of the note?

10. The difference between the bank discount and true discount of a note due in 2 years and 7 months is \$0.97, what is the face of the note?

II.

1. The square of a certain number is 13,500 less than the square of 4 times the number, what is the number?

2. The difference of the cube root of a number and the number itself is 143 times the cube root of the number, what is the number?

3. The base of a right angled triangle is to the perpendicular as 3 to 5, and the hypotenuse is 45 feet, what are the other sides?

4. The area of a right angled triangle is 600 feet, the base is 30 feet, what are the other sides?

5. The difference between the interest at 5 per cent. and at $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of a certain sum for 4 years 3 months and 10 days is \$14.38, what is the principal?

6. The difference between the interest of \$500 and \$600, at 6 per cent., is \$13.45, what is the time?

7. The difference between the interest of \$250 for 7 months and for 11 months is \$1.73, what is the per cent.?

8. The difference of the bank discount and the true discount of a note due in 1 year 7 months and 9 days is \$2.13, what is the face of the note?

9. One-third of a certain number exceeds $\frac{1}{4}$ of that number by 4 more than 1-20 of the number, what is the number?

10. A and B buy a cheese in the form of a sphere, weighing 40 lbs.; A pays 4-11 and B 7-11. B offers to take for his share the largest possible cube that can be cut from it. Did he gain or lose, and how much?

Manton Grammar School.

E. H. H.

III.

1. Write in figures, twenty millions, eight hundred and fifty-six ten thousands, five hundred and sixty-four, and three hundredths.

2. When you have added a column of numbers, why do you add 1 to the next column for every 10 you obtain?

3. How do you subtract when a figure in the subtrahend expresses a larger number than the figure in the minuend directly over it?

4. In multiplication, if your multiplier has two figures, why do you write the first figure of the product of the multiplicand by the tens of the multiplier, one place farther to the left than the first figure of its product by the units of the multiplier?

5. A man sold 24.526 acres of land for \$429.37, what did he get per acre?

6. Write the table of square measure, and the table of avoirdupois weight.

7. What is the value of a load of wood 7 feet long, $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide and $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet high at \$9 per cord?

8. If seven-eighths of a yard of cloth cost three-fifths of a dollar, how many yards can be bought for two-thirds of a dollar? (Explanation ought to be written out.)

9. What is the interest of \$525.50 from February 13, 1855, to October 8, 1856, at 6 per cent. per annum?

10. What is a note for \$600, due April 1, 1855, worth Feb. 15, 1855, money being worth 6 per cent. per annum?

11. January 1, 1855, Richard Roe gives me his note for \$600, payable in 60 days; on the 10th of January, 1855, I get it discounted at the bank, how much do I receive?

12. A merchant, by selling sugar at \$8.00 per cwt., loses 1 per cent of its cost, would he gain or lose by selling it at \$9.00 per cwt., and how much per cent.?

IV.

1. What is the least common multiple of 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 12, 16, 18?

2. If 3-7 of a ton of hay costs \$9, how much can be purchased for \$31.50?

3. What will a board, 12 ft. 3 in. long and 9 in. wide cost, at $8\frac{1}{2}$ cts. a square foot?

4. How many barrels of flour, at \$7.35 a barrel, can be purchased for \$686.20?

5. If a man steps 2 ft. 8 in. each step, and a boy steps 1 ft. 6 in. each step, and the boy makes 8 steps while the man is making 6 steps; how far will the boy walk while the man is walking four and one-half miles?

6. What is the interest of \$96.40, at 6 per cent., from June 12, 1857, to April 6, 1858?

7. If the cargo of a ship be worth \$1248, and if 3-4 of 8-9 of 5-16 of the ship be worth 2-3 of 7-8 of 9-16 of the cargo; what would be the value of the ship and cargo?

8. A merchant had his note of \$812.595 for 90 days, discounted; with the money he purchased flour at \$8 per barrel. After keeping the flour 30 days, he sold it for cash at \$8.50 per barrel. The money received for the flour was on interest until the note was due. What did he gain?

9. A merchant invested \$4640 in trade. At the end of a year he found he had gained \$835.20; what per cent. did he gain on the sum invested?

10. In a right angled triangle, the sum of its three sides is 60 feet; the shortest side is 15 feet; what is the length of the other two sides?

Editors' Department.

THE following contributions have been received in compliance with a resolution passed at a recent meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, held at Carolina Mills, for the relief of the sick and wounded soldiers:

John J. Ladd, Classical Department High School, Providence.....	\$5 55
Wm. A. Mowry, English Department, do..	8 10
Samuel Thurber, Junior Department, do...	5 00
Miss E. B. Barnes, Carpenter Street Primary, Providence.....	1 16
F. B. C. Davis, Public School, Westerly...	65
S. A. Briggs, Public School, E. Greenwich,	3 00
Charles E. Howes, Public School, District No. 9, Westerly	42
P. T. Coggeshall, Public School, Portsmouth	1 25
J. W. Gorton, Public School, Peacedale...	91
H. E. Miner, Public School, Charlestown..	35
Miss I. F. Dixon, Public School, S. Kingstown	12
Mr. G. M. Bently, Pub. School. Hopkinton,	40
Miss S. M. Lillibridge, Public School, Richmond	16
Mr. A. A. Lillibridge.....do.....do.....	22

\$27 19

THE SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON MUSIC, of Boston, has been forwarded to us by the politeness of J. D. Philbrick, Esq., the worthy and very efficient superintendent of the public schools of that city. We have read the report with somewhat of care and much interest. There are many points of interest in this report which deserve more than a passing notice. We shall hope to bring it before our readers at length in a future number.

A New England Convention.

FOR a number of years the American Institute has held its annual meetings in various parts of our country, calling together a large number of the best teachers and educators in the land. This is all very well, and we cordially hope for its continuance, though our nationality may at present suffer discord and civil war, thereby impeding and fearfully weakening its efficiency. In addition to this why may we not have a New England convention sometime during the next summer vacation, when we may meet practical, live men and women from every district of our beloved Puritan New England, whose hearts are warm with the love of their work as leaders of the young. This might be carried out with little effort on the part of the educational journals, first calling the attention of our friends to the matter, and then a board of two or three from each State may be appointed, to make more definite plans for its completion. In regard to the place of holding it, of course some central portion should in justice be selected, say Worcester or Springfield; or if it should be deemed advisable to meet nearer the cool winds of the Atlantic, thereby adding luxury to profit, let it be held at Salem or Portland or New Bedford or Boston or Newport.

To us this seems practicable and really necessary, as a stronger bond of union should be formed, as well as a more uniform system of teaching, among the many excellent laborers of our land. At this meeting let the more ordinary themes of school labor be freely discussed,—those topics which seldom find their way into the elaborate and finely woven lectures of the times. Those points of perplexity which are ever staring the beginner, as well as the silver-haired teacher, in the face, should be fully discussed as well as those principles which, in practice, make a good school-room laborer as well as a splendid theorist. We have all learned that it is one thing to draw out on canvas a model school, where each varied disposition and peculiar temperament are made to harmonize with beautiful symmetry; where the lights and shades of teacher and pupil blend with such unclouded beauty as to charm the eye;—but to tread the path of the thickly populated school-room six days out of the seven, amid the frequent vicissitudes of climate, subject to the many physical derangements peculiar to teacher and scholar alike, taking, now and then, family jars into the school-room, which must be hermetically sealed or make the pickle worse, is quite another.

Do we not need to learn something more of ourselves? Why is it that the remark has grown to a truth, that the teacher's life is shorter by twenty-five years provided the profession is followed exclusively? Is it the poison of the rooms which consumes the vitality, like the metallic odor of the steel polisher's shop? Is it overstrained mental effort? Is it a want of sympathy from the outer world,

thus freezing the current of warm life in the soul? What is that magic spell by which one calms the surges of school-room troubles, while another raises the same at his coming?

Will our educational journalists think of this subject, and give us their views as to its possibility. Let us arouse to greater energy in the cause. We want to see the live fish going up the stream; let the dead ones float, and the fossils sleep.

Evening Schools.

THERE are now in the city of Providence six evening schools, in various parts of the city. In these schools pupils of all ages are admitted, where teachers from the day schools are employed to instruct them reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, &c.

They come from the factory or shop with a deep thirst for learning. We are satisfied that this is a noble movement on the part of our Council, and will tell in years long distant in the future. The session of these schools begins at seven and closes at nine o'clock. As you enter the room you see a teacher with a class of boys teaching them to read and spell; in another direction a large boy is working out an example in long division; another part, a kitchen girl is spelling out words of two or three letters with an ardor and zeal quite unusual. Many boys come, at first, for a pastime, but most work with a commendable zeal.

The Penny Contribution.

WE hope the teachers in the various schools in the State are not forgetting the resolutions passed by the Institute at Carolina Mills, last month. That many are not we have had pleasing proofs. Many little penny mites, given by tiny hands, are finding their way to the treasury. Who would not encourage this beautiful principle of patriotic benevolence and self-denial? Who would deny to the little school pupil this unmingled joy in after years which shall come welling up as the story of our country's struggle is told by the hearthstone of children's children? Do you say it is too small, only a drop in the bucket? So it is only drops that bear our mighty navies on to victory and conquest. Nurture true benevolence in the bud, and you shall see the spirit adding far more beauty to the opening flower. Ye who have become so sordid and selfish in the pursuit of personal wealth as to feel no sympathy for your needy country or her excellent defenders, while we mourn your degenerate, ice-clad soul, we pray you do not smoulder the sparks of patriotic benevolence in the youth.

From one little school in an extreme part of the State we have received fifty-five big round pennies, one from each, and with each mite a little wish for the glory and perpetuity of our beloved land. The teacher assures us that the true spirit of loyalty is seen in the life of these little donors. We are

pleased to feel that though treason and sedition still lurk in the whitening locks and furrowed cheeks of declining years, that in the boys and girls of to-day we have a glorious picture of true love and devotion to country. There is a good time coming, the boys and girls will soon walk the stage, while traitors ingloriously sleep.

MR. H. M. RICE has been appointed successor to Lieut. H. R. Pierce, (now an officer in the Burnside rifle battalion) as principal of the Woonsocket High School. This is the right man in the right place. Mr. Rice is a fine scholar and an estimable citizen. Friend Rice, we are glad to continue our relations to you as a Rhode Island teacher.

WE would call attention to the advertisement of Mr. John L. Shorey, the enterprising publisher of an excellent series of Readers.

Our Book Table.

POTTER & HAMMOND'S ANALYTICAL, SYNTHETICAL AND PROGRESSIVE SYSTEM OF PENMANSHIP. In Twelve Numbers. Shermerhorn, Bancroft & Co., publishers, 696 Broadway, New York; 25 North Fourth Street, Philadelphia.

Once more we call the attention of our readers to this important subject. Penmanship, as taught in most of our schools, is not what it should be. In fact, we are sometimes inclined to believe that while advance has been made in almost every department, there has been a retrograde movement in regard to writing. True, all the pupils learn to write, or are supposed to, but we candidly believe that the number who acquire even a legible hand, is very small, while the bold, plain, copper-plate style of years ago is hardly seen. In the days of our grandfathers, those who wrote at all wrote well; would that we could say the same now, but the universal practice of scribbling forbids. It might seem that the great merit of writing, as an art, at the present day, consisted in making it illegible. Now, where is the fault, and where shall improvement commence? Unquestionably in the school-room, and at the hands of teachers. Teachers must first be aroused to the importance of the subject, and study the best means of teaching it correctly. Some uniform system is needed, and the want of such a system has been felt for a long time. Such a want no longer exists. Messrs. Potter & Hammond have, in their series of writing-books, illustrated the principles that belong to the subject, as a science, so fully and plainly that any teacher ought to be able to communicate the same to his pupils, and if any pupil will faithfully carry into practice those principles, he cannot fail of becoming a good penman. This series has been improved during the past summer, and many important changes have been made, so that they may now be considered as among the things we designate by the term PERFECT.

METHOD OF CLASSICAL STUDIES: Illustrated by Questions on a few Selections from Latin and Greek Authors. By Samuel H. Taylor, LL. D., Principal of Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.

The author of this little book is a teacher of long experience, who seems to have impressed himself on the present generation of New England men in a remarkable manner. He here offers us a slight insight into his method of teaching the Latin and Greek languages. Producing a few lines from the text of *Æsop's Fables*, *Nepos*, *Cicero*, *Virgil*, *Xenophon*, and *Homer*, he shows us, to a certain extent, how he would conduct the recitation, were these passages the lesson of the day. Only the formal recitation questions are presented, but these are so abundant, thorough and searching, that no teacher could fail to profit by their study. To the first Fable of *Æsop*, "*Accipiter et Columbae*," which comprises five lines, are attached over a hundred and thirty questions, and to the first line of the *Iliad* over thirty. These seem to be an excellent selection from the innumerable stock which could be invented. It is easy for the teacher to fall into routine in his questions, and this book will furnish new ideas and incite to greater penetration into the mysteries of ancient etymology and syntax. A special excellence of the book is that it recognizes the personality of the ancient authors themselves. It defines them somewhat, dates them, and fixes them in a mentionable period of history, where they are organic, and significant as *Cicero* and *Xenophon*, besides furnishing materials for mere grammatical study. s. t.

STUDENT AND SCHOOLMATE and *Forester's Boys' and Girls' Magazine*. A Reader for Schools and Families. Wm. T. Adams, (Oliver Optic) Editor. Galen James & Co., publishers, No. 15 Cornhill, Boston.

We have no exchange on our list that is more welcome to us than the *Student and Schoolmate*. The January number for 1862 is received, and so enchanting are its articles that we can hardly engage in anything else until we have read the last word of the last page. A little boy of five summers, by our side, is as deeply interested in the stories as ourself. Among the numerous monthlies for children this has attained a rank second to none. The publishers offer great inducements to clubs. For two names and \$2.00, they will send as a premium a bound volume of the *Student and Schoolmate* for 1861, or a copy of "*Little by Little*," a capital story of 280 pages, by Oliver Optic. For five names and \$5.00, *Harpers' Illustrated Weekly*; or, if desired, they will send any other paper of the same price. For twelve names and \$12.00, *Webster's Unabridged Dictionary*, illustrated edition.

Extraordinary Club Rates: Two copies one year, \$1.75; four copies, \$3.00; six copies, \$4.00; ten copies, \$6.00; twenty copies, \$11; fifty copies, \$25.00.

Bound volumes for 1861 can be obtained for one dollar.

A COMPREHENSIVE GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. For the use of Schools. By Simon Kerl, A. M. Published by Phinney, Blakeman & Co., New York.

We have perused with constant pleasure and profit this new work, which gives evidence on every page of being the result of a *thorough knowledge* of the *structure* of the English language, and also how best to communicate that knowledge to the student.

In its *matter* the work does not differ much from other grammars, except that it has more and that much of it is fresh from the original sources of the science. In the *arrangement* of the subject the author has accomplished an important item for the learner. Each part is complete in itself, and even should the pupil acquire a thorough knowledge of only *one* section, *that* will be a permanent acquisition to him.

We assure the teachers of Rhode Island that they will be much more successful in teaching language after studying Kerl's Grammar.

For further notice of the author's works we refer teachers to the advertisement of Phinney, Blakeman & Co., in the December number. D.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY for January, 1862, has been received. This number begins the ninth volume of this truly national magazine. The fact of its constantly increasing circulation is an evidence of the hold it has already acquired on the favor of the American public. The present number gives evident signs of greater vigor than has characterized it before. No magazine has shown more zeal and interest or has rendered more signal labor in the *putting down* of the gigantic rebellion. The life of the republic and the best interest of the nation require of literature a manly and generous action, and the *Atlantic* has commanded the talents of the most vigorous writers in behalf of our beloved country. What it *has* done so well, it *will* do in the future.

Prof. L. Agassiz is to contribute a series of articles to the columns of the *Atlantic* during the year.

LEWIS'S GYMNASIAC MONTHLY AND JOURNAL OF PHYSICAL CULTURE. Dio Lewis, M. D., editor. January, 1862. This is dressed in entirely a new form and greatly improved. The quality of paper and type is fine, and it is altogether a valuable manual, containing, as we doubt not it will, all the regulations and rules for a thorough course of physical culture. It is within the means of every one—\$1.00 per year, or three copies for \$2.00, five for \$3.00, ten for \$5.00.

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We have received the Fifteenth Annual Catalogue of the Officers and Students of the People's Academy, Morrisville, Vermont, for the academic year ending November 20th, 1861.

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rick of bones to the telegraph."—*Christian Messenger, New York*.
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COWPERTHWAIT & CO., PHILADELPHIA.

This Book contains a full discussion of all the essential principles of English Grammar, and is intended to be

A COMPLETE TEXT-BOOK

upon this subject.

Particular attention is invited to the logical and systematic treatment of "Syntax"; the "Models for Construction," and "Models for Analysis"; the "Cautions" against adopting ungrammatical constructions, which also serve as guides in correcting false Syntax; and to the appended

SYSTEM OF PUNCTUATION,

growing directly from the analysis of sentences, which will be found easy of application by any one who has studied the previous discussion of elements.

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The R. I. Schoolmaster.

FEBRUARY, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

NUMBER TWO.

For the Schoolmaster.
Notes on Spelling.

I was much pleased, a few days ago, at hearing a boy, a little over five years old, read and spell with fluency in common English prose printed in phonetic characters. Scarcely a year ago, having never learned the common alphabet, he had commenced to spell and soon after to read according to the phonetic method; having now attained considerable proficiency therein, he was passing on to spell in the common English print. What a pity! said I. For the irksome task of spelling, by the common method never completed, would, in this way, be nearly finished at the end of the first year. This boy's ear is now quick and accurate; how dull and deadened it may be two years hence. The connection between the vocal sounds and the characters now seems to him close and clear; then it will be obscure and perplexing.

In the phonetic alphabet, there being a character for each sound in the language, forty-three letters are found. The child who is to learn to spell, is told to look at the mouth of the teacher and to notice the sound he makes; the pupil notes the sound and imitates it as well as he can. The character representing the sound is now printed for him, and the sound is repeated by the teacher, then by the scholar. The learner is then taught to print the character himself, to recognize it in a book, and to find it on a block, among others. Then the successive sounds and characters are taught in the same manner. The next step is to combine two or more sounds by rapidly uttering, one after another, several sounds, making thereby monosyllabic words. His onward course in spelling is now easy. If,

at the end of a year, the learner is to go on to read in common print, the change is made gradually, yet rapidly, so that it is asserted by the friends of this system, that if a child is taught to spell phonetically first, and then by the common way, he will not only be a better speller than common, at the end of a given time, but will be better prepared to make a good reader.

The advantages of this system would be reaped by the million, the disadvantages would be felt by but few; for, while all find it hard to spell, but few know anything of the roots of the language, and then it is doubtful whether more roots would be obscured or be brought out by the process. Its advantages are practical, certain; its disadvantages uncertain and visionary; for a great expenditure of time and of labor is saved, as well as a great tax on the memory, to be lavished on other objects, and with greater profit to the pupil. Still the community refuses to adopt phonetics, and we must go on teaching the common alphabet the best way we can.

Call, then, the little ones, who have just entered the school and are to learn the alphabet, to you, speaking a pleasant word to each and encouraging the timid ones. Chat with them to awaken a desire in them to learn their letters; do not forget this; it is important. Now show them a large letter, A; let all look at it carefully. Would they like to know its name and will they try to remember it? It is A. Who can tell its name? What do you think it is? And you, and you? That is very well. Now all say, A. But let me print this letter on the board. See: one straight line thus; another so, and a third across. Who can print the letter A on the board? Well, John, you may try, and you,

METHOD OF CLASSICAL STUDIES: Illustrated by Questions on a few Selections from Latin and Greek Authors. By Samuel H. Taylor, LL. D., Principal of Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.

The author of this little book is a teacher of long experience, who seems to have impressed himself on the present generation of New England men in a remarkable manner. He here offers us a slight insight into his method of teaching the Latin and Greek languages. Producing a few lines from the text of *Æsop's Fables*, *Nepos*, *Cicero*, *Virgil*, *Xenophon*, and *Homer*, he shows us, to a certain extent, how he would conduct the recitation, were these passages the lesson of the day. Only the formal recitation questions are presented, but these are so abundant, thorough and searching, that no teacher could fail to profit by their study. To the first Fable of *Æsop*, "*Accipiter et Columbae*," which comprises five lines, are attached over a hundred and thirty questions, and to the first line of the *Iliad* over thirty. These seem to be an excellent selection from the innumerable stock which could be invented. It is easy for the teacher to fall into routine in his questions, and this book will furnish new ideas and incite to greater penetration into the mysteries of ancient etymology and syntax. A special excellence of the book is that it recognizes the personality of the ancient authors themselves. It defines them somewhat, dates them, and fixes them in a mentionable period of history, where they are organic, and significant as *Cicero* and *Xenophon*, besides furnishing materials for mere grammatical study. S. T.

STUDENT AND SCHOOLMATE and *Forester's Boys' and Girls' Magazine*. A Reader for Schools and Families. Wm. T. Adams, (Oliver Optic) Editor. Glen James & Co., publishers, No. 15 Cornhill, Boston.

We have no exchange on our list that is more welcome to us than the *Student and Schoolmate*. The January number for 1862 is received, and so enchanting are its articles that we can hardly engage in anything else until we have read the last word of the last page. A little boy of five summers, by our side, is as deeply interested in the stories as ourself. Among the numerous monthlies for children this has attained a rank second to none. The publishers offer great inducements to clubs. For two names and \$2.00, they will send as a premium a bound volume of the *Student and Schoolmate* for 1861, or a copy of "*Little by Little*," a capital story of 280 pages, by Oliver Optic. For five names and \$5.00, *Harpers' Illustrated Weekly*; or, if desired, they will send any other paper of the same price. For twelve names and \$12.00, *Webster's Unabridged Dictionary*, illustrated edition.

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For further notice of the author's works we refer teachers to the advertisement of Phinney, Blakeman & Co., in the December number. D.

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The R. I. Schoolmaster.

FEBRUARY, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

NUMBER TWO.

For the Schoolmaster.
Notes on Spelling.

I was much pleased, a few days ago, at hearing a boy, a little over five years old, read and spell with fluency in common English prose printed in phonetic characters. Scarcely a year ago, having never learned the common alphabet, he had commenced to spell and soon after to read according to the phonetic method; having now attained considerable proficiency therein, he was passing on to spell in the common English print. What a pity! said I. For the irksome task of spelling, by the common method never completed, would, in this way, be nearly finished at the end of the first year. This boy's ear is now quick and accurate; how dull and deadened it may be two years hence. The connection between the vocal sounds and the characters now seems to him close and clear; then it will be obscure and perplexing.

In the phonetic alphabet, there being a character for each sound in the language, forty-three letters are found. The child who is to learn to spell, is told to look at the mouth of the teacher and to notice the sound he makes; the pupil notes the sound and imitates it as well as he can. The character representing the sound is now printed for him, and the sound is repeated by the teacher, then by the scholar. The learner is then taught to print the character himself, to recognize it in a book, and to find it on a block, among others. Then the successive sounds and characters are taught in the same manner. The next step is to combine two or more sounds by rapidly uttering, one after another, several sounds, making thereby monosyllabic words. His onward course in spelling is now easy. If,

at the end of a year, the learner is to go on to read in common print, the change is made gradually, yet rapidly, so that it is asserted by the friends of this system, that if a child is taught to spell phonetically first, and then by the common way, he will not only be a better speller than common, at the end of a given time, but will be better prepared to make a good reader.

The advantages of this system would be reaped by the million, the disadvantages would be felt by but few; for, while all find it hard to spell, but few know anything of the roots of the language, and then it is doubtful whether more roots would be obscured or be brought out by the process. Its advantages are practical, certain; its disadvantages uncertain and visionary; for a great expenditure of time and of labor is saved, as well as a great tax on the memory, to be lavished on other objects, and with greater profit to the pupil. Still the community refuses to adopt phonetics, and we must go on teaching the common alphabet the best way we can.

Call, then, the little ones, who have just entered the school and are to learn the alphabet, to you, speaking a pleasant word to each and encouraging the timid ones. Chat with them to awaken a desire in them to learn their letters; do not forget this; it is important. Now show them a large letter, A; let all look at it carefully. Would they like to know its name and will they try to remember it? It is A. Who can tell its name? What do you think it is? And you, and you? That is very well. Now all say, A. But let me print this letter on the board. See: one straight line thus; another so, and a third across. Who can print the letter A on the board? Well, John, you may try, and you,

too, James. Very well done. What is the name of the letter? That will do for this time.

Having, in a similar manner, taught them B and C, place the three letters thus far learned, printed on blocks or on paper, on the table, and let them try to pick out B, C, A. This will stimulate them. Go on in this way, till the whole alphabet is learned, alternately using the printed alphabet, printing yourself and asking the name of the letter, giving the name for them to print, holding up separate letters picked at random from a pile and asking the name, or requesting them to pick out D, or M, or O, from a confused mass of letters.

The next step is to teach the spelling and the pronunciation of monosyllables. And now the difficulties connected with our alphabet begin, and the child finds it is really a hard thing to learn to spell. Could a lad of eighteen be given two tasks; the one to learn Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar from cover to cover; the other to learn, for the first time, how to spell forty thousand of the more purely literary words of our language; would he accept the easier task, he would make choice of the grammar.

Let us see what some of these difficulties are. 1. The same letter represents different sounds; example, the different sounds of a. 2. The same sound is represented by different letters and combinations of letters; example, a, ai, ay, ey. 3. Many letters are silent; example, *gnomen*; *sign*; *pthisis*, &c. It would cause less confusion in spelling were there no similarity between the names of the letters and the sounds which they represent. The occasional presence and frequent absence of this similarity is the origin of the confusion. The learner gets confused, puzzled and inattentive. He is tired of spelling, dislikes school, vexes his teachers, and is lucky if, when ten years old, he is not utterly disgusted with books and studying.

Suppose that your pupils have taken their places in the class to spell orally. The teacher, having prepared himself beforehand, (and scarcely any one can pronounce correctly the words in a single column in a spelling book, without previous study) gives out a word for some one to spell. The scholar first pronounces the word; by this you know that he understands what word you gave out, and he gets its true pronunciation. Any error, however slight, in respect to the pronunciation should be corrected by the class or by the teacher. Now he spells the first syllable and pronounces it; the second and pronounces it by itself and then combined with the

former syllable; and so on through the word. It is not easy after having spelled a word in this way to mispronounce it. For the learner knows how to pronounce each syllable and has the proper order of their succession; these points with the accent determine the pronunciation of the word. Often when an error is made in pronouncing a word, it arises from uncertainty with regard to the succession of the syllables. When you give out a word, if the scholar through inattention does not understand you, pass the word to the next. If he misspells the word, without allowing him a second chance, pass the word to the next. To allow a boy to try more than once in spelling a word, encourages poor preparation of lessons, guessing and inaccuracy. Some teachers put out a word to a pupil, and, whether it be spelled correctly or not, another word is at once put out to the second pupil, the teacher keeping the run of the mistakes. Any scholar, now, is at liberty, after having spelled his own word, to correct any mistake or mistakes he may have noticed. Some allow any scholar who notices a mistake to raise his hand and to correct it at once. Be sure to have the pupil who misses a word, re-spell it after it has been spelled correctly. It is well for each member of the class to keep an account of the words that he has missed, and at the commencement of the exercise, on the following day, re-spell them, either orally, or by writing them on the blackboard.

Pronounce each syllable after spelling it, as it should be pronounced in the whole word. Do not, after having spelled the second syllable of *mor-ti-fy*, pronounce with the *i* long, *ti*. Do not, in spelling *garden*, say, *d-e-n*, *den*; nor in the final syllable of *menace*, say, *a-c-e*, *ace*; nor in *judgment*, *munt*.

If you pass a word to the next when it is spelled incorrectly, do not make the syllable in which the mistake was made unduly emphatic. If *eminent* is spelled with an *e* for the second syllable, do not, on passing it, say *em-i-nent*; nor, *sta-tion-er-y*, on passing it to the next. This would be indirect prompting.

Do not stop a scholar in the middle of a word, just as he has misspelled a syllable, to pass the word to the next. Thus in spelling *metallurgy*; if the spelling is, *met-al-ur-*, do not at once say, "the next," but wait till the scholar has finished spelling the word, and then say, "the next." Do not, also, smile, as a syllable is wrongly spelled: to do so is indirect prompting.

Do not, in giving out words to spell, always

commence with the same member of the class, as with the head or the middle scholar. Some require their pupils to be always ready to answer the question, asked at any time during the spelling exercise, "What was the last word that was spelled?" To answer this question, attention must be given to the exercise at all times.

I see no objection to scholars taking places when spelling orally, but rather approve of it. When two words in the same lesson are pronounced alike, but spelled differently, as air and heir, the teacher should define the one first put out. If of two words in the language pronounced alike, but spelled differently, only one is in the lesson for the day, the teacher is not called on to define it; the pupil must know what words are in the lesson, and what not.

The rules in spelling, showing how to form the plural of nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant, and of nouns ending in o preceded by a consonant, the derivatives formed by the addition of a syllable beginning with a consonant, of words ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel and accented on the last syllable, together with its attendant rule, and the rule for the forming of derivatives in ous and able from words ending in ce and ge, are so important that all should learn them. There are a few other rules also which it is well to know.

I think it is well for teachers to make out lists of words to be spelled by their advanced classes, by writing them; now common geographical names, now proper names of celebrated men, especially of literary men. I have lately given out the following, and find classes interested in these words, which they ought also to be able to spell: Macaulay, DeQuincey, Disraeli, Brougham, Campbell, Thomson, Carlyle, Aytoun, B. Jonson, S. Johnson; Narragansett, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Winnipiseogic, Schenectady, Schuylkill, Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Mississippi, Alleghany, Atchafalaya, Nicaragua, Caribbean, Mediterranean, Apennines. It is well also to ask the scholars to bring in lists of hard words, restricting them, if they are to take geographical names, to the more common ones, or if literary terms, to those that strictly are such, and to the most common scientific terms, and not allowing them full range in the great mass of technical terms crowded into our bulky dictionaries. The following list may be brought in: Allegeable, Separate, Judgment, Stationary, Confectionery, Kaleidoscope, Daguerreotype, Potatoes, Seize, Sieve, Gauge, Guard, Infringement, Innuendo.

Or the teacher on another day might call the attention of his class to the more common and important words that have various spellings, pointing out the spelling that the dictionary adopted by him as authority prefers. The following is such a list: Gray, Ribbon, Bonnet, Wagon, Fagot, Mosquito, Marshal, Reindeer, Oxide.

Shall words be spelled orally, or by writing, or by both methods combined? I think the last mentioned way the best. When a person can spell a word correctly orally, there is no reason why he should not write it correctly, provided he is not so unused to writing as to have all his attention given to shaping the letters, and so make mistakes in regard to the orthography of the word. If this is a correct view of the matter, all that is necessary to ensure proper orthography in good oral spellers, is some practice daily in writing out the more difficult words in the lesson. And then in half an hour, many more words can be spelled in an oral than in a written exercise. But some one may say that there is really more spelling when of a class of twenty each writes the same twenty words, than when, in the same class, each spells orally five words; that the ratio is as 400 : 100. This surely cannot be the case, when, as I have mentioned above, the teacher adopts means to ensure the attention of the whole class to each word spelled; then the ratio would be as 400 : 2,000.

I would then recommend to have the pupils spell orally until they are able to spell correctly the more common words in English literature, which, in yearly schools, can be accomplished, and ought to be, by the tenth birth day; and at each exercise, even from beginning to learn the alphabet, let there be some time given to printing or to writing the more difficult parts of the lesson, on the blackboard, the slate, or on paper. After that time, I proceed as follows: Let the scholars be provided with blank books, the pages just large enough to receive the number of words put out at one lesson, say twenty. The scholars, at their seats, write the words as they are given out, attending to the spelling, chirography, syllabication, accent, and other particulars, such as dotting the *s*'s and crossing the *t*'s. The exercise being finished, the books are handed in to the teacher, who corrects them by putting a cross opposite each misspelled word, a horizontal line opposite each mistake in syllabication, an apostrophe when the wrong syllable is accented, and a com-

ma when an i or j is left undotted, or a t not crossed. On the last page of the book six vertical lines are ruled about a half inch apart, forming six columns, to be headed with abbreviations for spelling, writing, syllabication, accent, other particulars and total. If no mistake is made in any of these items, a dash, for 20, in each of the first five columns, and 100 in the sixth column, show that this exercise has been perfect. A deduction of one for each mistake, or for a slovenly appearance of the book, or for the chirography, might make the record stand.

18	19	17	18	15	87
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The propriety of attending to each of the five particulars in this record is so obvious as to need no illustration here. Instead of using blank books (the best thing to write on) the blackboard, slate or paper, may be substituted for them. Many teachers, to avoid the task of correcting so many spelling books, and to improve their pupils in spelling, by making them critics, have the scholars, after all the words are given out, exchange, according to some method previously decided on, their books, slates, papers, or positions at the blackboard, and then the words are spelled in turn through the class, the mistakes being marked as they occur. This method is a good one for a school well disciplined and of high tone, but in others it is liable to great abuses.

From what book is the spelling lesson to be given out? For children up to the age of ten or of twelve, who for the most part spell orally, from a good spelling book; after that age, from a small dictionary, from the reading lesson for the day, from a dictation exercise, or from lists of difficult words brought in by the teacher, as spoken of above. We learn to spell the most of our words before the age of twelve. To facilitate this learning, words should be classified to enable the learner to master difficult combinations most easily and rapidly; neither the dictionary nor the reader do this. It is certainly well for children under twelve to spell words from the reading lesson; but this is for change and variety; it is not the main reliance; that should be placed in the spelling book. Practically it does not work well to give boys and girls, eight or nine years old, a page in a dictionary or reading book to study as a spelling lesson. Many of the words are too hard for them; more too easy, and they cannot make that wise selection in the choice of words that the teacher may.

I consider that written exercises in spelling

after the age of twelve, for children in yearly, graded schools, are for the purpose of retaining what has been already acquired, and for perfecting their knowledge of spelling by extending their researches into the more difficult and less common literary and scientific words in the language. Now is the time to use dictation exercises, and especially those sentences that contain, now one, now another, of words spelled alike but with different meaning; the scholar to find the meaning and thence the spelling of a word from its connection with the rest of the sentence.

How a word should be syllabicated, is to be determined mainly by the ear; often with one pronunciation, a word would be syllabicated in one way, with a different pronunciation in another way.

The various dictionaries do not syllabicate words alike. Prof. Greene, in the last edition of his grammar, and Mr. Worcester, in his spelling book, have given a few simple rules for syllabication, which pupils and teachers would do well to learn.

Having finished the spelling exercise, let the scholars open their books, and pronounce the words in the next lesson, after the teacher. In this way they get the right pronunciation of the words fixed in their minds, and while studying their lesson for the next day, will not mispronounce them. Now let the words spelled to-day be re-pronounced, to see if all retain the proper pronunciation. This is a very good preparatory exercise in reading.

But can we pronounce the words correctly, without looking in the dictionary for each one? After having given much attention to the subject of pronunciation, I find that the only safe way is, to consult the dictionary for nearly every word. If those only about which some doubt is felt are looked up, mistakes in the other words are apt to be made. Now, to consult the dictionary so frequently takes a great deal of time and of labor, and the conclusion is soon reached that a spelling book like Worcester's, in which the sound of each vowel and consonant is indicated by appropriate marks (a key to which is prefixed to the body of the work) is very desirable for the teacher. To those scholars too young to use the key, the marks, being unnoticed, will do no harm. At the proper age the use of the key can be explained, and will be found to be of great aid to them. Some pronunciation must be taught with the spelling exercise; why not have it the best? Can a better

method be proposed than that adopted by Mr. Worcester? Stearns' Pronouncing Guide is an admirable book, but its object would be in great part anticipated by the use of Worcester's Spelling Book. Neither of these books, without the aid of a good teacher in elocution, would do away with the great mass of vicious pronunciation, but each would help to do so, if carefully studied and taught.

Ought definitions to be inserted in the spelling book, for children to learn? To require definitions from too young pupils diverts too much of their attention from the main object of the exercise,—learning to spell. Definitions, always imperfect descriptions of words, are the poorest of all in spelling books. The child's memory, which is very retentive, and his quick observation, enable him to make great progress in spelling before perception and judgment are sufficiently awakened for him to catch the full meaning of a word, or to appreciate a good definition of it. After the age of twelve, spelling may rank second in order of importance in the exercise, and defining first.

What place in the order of succession of a child's studies spelling should take, at what age he should learn to spell, and why the order of development of his faculties makes spelling a peculiarly appropriate exercise for a child, can be gathered from what has already been said. It is nearly impossible to become a good speller except by learning when young.

Evidently those are the best spelling books, other things being equal, in which difficult combinations are classified, and regard is had, at the same time, to the number of syllables and to the length of the words. Memory is thereby assisted in the difficult task of learning to spell the words of our language. Commence the spelling book, then, with words of one syllable, having the same combination, and make a pretty full list of that class of words; then make other lists with other combinations; afterwards lists of words of two syllables, classified in the same way. As spelling is the main object of our book, to classify its words according to their derivation, to their suffixes and their prefixes, or the number of their syllables and the place of the accent only, seems absurd.

It is well for even the best of spellers to have a good dictionary at hand, to consult when occasion offers, and especially when composing.

I shall say nothing to prove that many of our schools are very deficient in spelling, for no observing teacher will doubt it. Facts could easi-

ly be cited to convince the most skeptical on this point.

Would that each examining committee, at the close of our winter schools, could say with truth, of each of their teachers, "His scholars spell and pronounce correctly." X.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

From "Education: Intellectual, Moral and Physical,"
by Herbert Spencer.

Moral Education.

By sparing of commands. Command only in those cases in which other means are inapplicable, or have failed. "In frequent orders the parents' advantage is more considered than the child's," says Ritcher. As in primitive societies a breach of law is punished, not so much because it is intrinsically wrong as because it is a disregard of the king's authority—a rebellion against him; so in many families, the penalty visited on a transgressor proceeds less from reprobation of the offence than from anger at the disobedience. Listen to the ordinary speeches—"How dare you disobey me?" "I tell you I'll make you do it, sir." "I'll soon teach you who is master,"—and then consider what the words, the tone and the manner imply. A determination to subjugate is much more conspicuous in them than an anxiety for the child's welfare. For the time being the attitude of mind differs but little from that of the despot bent on punishing a recalcitrant subject. The right-feeling parent, however, like the philanthropic legislator, will not rejoice in coercion, but will rejoice in dispensing with coercion. He will do without law in all cases where other modes of regulating conduct can be successfully employed; and he will regret the having recourse to law when it is necessary. As Ritcher remarks—"The best rule in politics is to be *'pas trop gouvernor'* : it is also true in education." And in spontaneous conformity with this maxim, parents whose lust of dominion is restrained by a true sense of duty will aim to make their children control themselves wherever it is possible, and will fall back upon absolutism only as a last resort.

But whenever you *do* command, command with decision and consistency. If the case is one which really cannot be otherwise dealt with; then issue your fiat, and having issued it, never afterwards swerve from it. Consider well beforehand what you are going to do; weigh all the consequences; think whether your firmness of purpose will be sufficient; and then, if you

finally make the law, enforce it uniformly at whatever cost. Let your penalties be like the penalties inflicted by inanimate nature — inevitable. The hot cinder burns a child the first time he seizes it; it burns him the second time; it burns him the third time; it burns him every time; and he very soon learns not to touch the hot cinder. If you are equally consistent — if the consequences which you tell your child will follow certain acts, follow with like uniformity, he will soon come to respect your laws as he does those of Nature. And this respect once established will prevent endless domestic evils. Of errors in education one of the worst is that of inconsistency. As in a community, crimes multiply when there is no certain administration of justice; so in a family, an immense increase of transgressions results from a hesitating or irregular infliction of penalties. A weak mother, who perpetually threatens and rarely performs — who makes rules in haste and repents of them at leisure — who treats the same offence now with severity and now with leniency, according as the passing humor dictates, is laying up miseries both for herself and her children. She is making herself contemptible in their eyes; she is setting them an example of uncontrolled feelings; she is encouraging them to transgress by the prospect of probable impunity; she is entailing endless squabbles and accompanying damage to her own temper and the tempers of her little ones; she is reducing their minds to a moral chaos, which after-years of bitter experience will with difficulty bring into order. Better even a barbarous form of domestic government carried out consistently, than a humane one inconsistently carried out. Again we say, avoid coercive measures whenever it is possible to do so; but when you find despotism really necessary, be despotic in good earnest.

Bear constantly in mind the truth that the aim of your discipline should be to produce a *self-governing* being; not to produce a being to be *governed by others*. Were your children fated to pass their lives as slaves, you could not too much accustom them to slavery during their childhood; but as they are by-and-by to be free men, with no one to control their daily conduct, you cannot too much accustom them to self-control while they are still under your eye. This it is which makes the system of discipline by natural consequences, so especially appropriate to the social state which we in England have now reached. Under early, tyrannical forms of society, when one of the chief evils

the citizen had to fear was the anger of his superiors, it was well that during childhood parental vengeance should be a predominant means of government. But now that the citizen has little to fear from any one — now that the good or evil which he experiences throughout life is mainly that which in the nature of things results from his own conduct, it is desirable that from his first years he should begin to learn, experimentally, the good or evil consequences which naturally follow this or that conduct. Aim, therefore, to diminish the amount of parental government as fast as you can substitute for it in your child's mind that self-government arising from a foresight of results. In infancy a considerable amount of absolutism is necessary. A three-year old urchin playing with an open razor, cannot be allowed to learn by this discipline of consequences; for the consequences may, in such a case, be too serious. But as intelligence increases, the number of instances calling for peremptory interference may be, and should be, diminished; with the view of gradually ending them as maturity is approached. All periods of transition are dangerous; and the most dangerous is the transition from the restraint of the family circle to the non-restraint of the world. Hence the importance of pursuing the policy we advocate; which, alike by cultivating a child's faculty of self-restraint, by continually increasing the degree in which it is left to its self-constraint, and by so bringing it, step by step, to a state of unaided self-restraint, obliterates the ordinary sudden and hazardous change from externally-governed youth to internally-governed maturity. Let the history of your domestic rule typify, in little, the history of our political rule: at the outset, autocratic control, where control is really needful; by-and-by an incipient constitutionalism, in which the liberty of the subject gains some express recognition; successive extensions of this liberty of the subject; gradually ending in parental abdication.

Do not regret the exhibition of considerable self-will on the part of your children. It is the correlative of that diminished coerciveness so conspicuous in modern education. The greater tendency to assert freedom of action on the one side, corresponds to the smaller tendency to tyrannize on the other. They both indicate an approach to the system of discipline we contend for, under which children will be more and more led to rule themselves by the experience of natural consequences; and are both the accompaniments of our more advanced social state.

For the Schoolmaster.
 "The Duties of Teachers to their Country."

AN anonymous writer in the December SCHOOLMASTER lauded, with considerable enthusiasm, the plan of introducing military discipline into the common schools. We cannot encourage him to hope for the successful execution of the project he likes so well. He should see at once that the enterprise demands such a degree of sympathy with the schools, on the part of the people, and such an appreciation of their worth and power, as are not likely to be seen during this generation. We hope that while he is cultivating all physical and moral virtues by practicing with his rifle upon such game as the safe North now offers, some good seed may be sown in the schools in quieter ways than those he recommends. The question discussed at a recent meeting of the Institute:—"What are the duties of teachers to their country at the present time?"—may well be considered by every teacher who believes that he exerts an influence on the development of his pupils. In that "piquant discussion" we bore no part, not even as hearer, and so we here demand the floor for a brief space.

The words, *Our Country*, embody a mystery, whose deep significance only rare minds have been able to fathom. These we name *patriots*,—men of the *patria*, or *fatherland*. When to insight they have joined moral purity and noble action, we acknowledge their transcendent worth by the titles of saviors and fathers of their country. Washington, Franklin, Jefferson, the Adamses, hold a place not quite easily understood by Young America. They are nearly as mythical as the heroes of Greece. Their statues are regarded as fine public ornaments, but, we believe, the new philosophy hardly finds that they were heaven-inspired men. The lofty patriotism which does not hurrah or seek office, was, until these last months, fast becoming fabulous. In the tidal movements of national ideas we were at low ebb. The *men of the State* were politicians, and the very name of their profession was synonymous with corruption and intrigue. As teacher, you could hardly attempt to inculcate an idea of duty towards the country, without waking the wrath of some who were hot in support of quite contrary views. Good men were retiring from participation in the business of self-government. To take active part in the election of a successor of Washington, was to lay your character liable to suspicion.

The political apathy of the North, during the recent years of the republic, must bear its share of the responsibility of this sad rebellion. Every freeman who has withheld his hand and head from our politics shall answer for himself in this day of reckoning. We have amused ourselves with our petty interests and favorite dreams, till now we find the hand of a deadly foe at our throat, and it is yet doubtful whether we can rise again. The throes which our country seems thus far to suffer in vain, reach every individual of the body politic. Who exults not at every trifling gleam of success, and does not shudder at the apparent paralysis of the government? Every one feels in his own breast the suffocation under which the country labors, while the grasp of treason never once slackens, but gathers new strength from all the prognostics of the times. Every nerve of the republic quivers. Only the craven and the stolid person are now conscious of private ends. We are become new men. New and manifold relations connect us with interests on which we were wont to bestow hardly a thought, but on which, we now see, hang the issues of life and death. We long to suffer some perceptible and distinct portion of the national humiliation; to be taxed; to endure hardship; to be, each in his own sphere, a miniature of the country, oppressed with fatal danger.

It needs no special impressionability to catch the spirit of these times. Every person who ever thinks, is now living with an intensity which he, perhaps, never before knew. In our profession the words, *live teacher*, have, for some time, been cant. But they are now good again, and significant. To be a *live teacher* now, is infinitely more than to be perfectly enthusiastic in the special duties of the school. Our work, being by its nature moral, presents new modes of action in an emergency like the present, when the interests at stake are also moral, and of broad application. If every teacher teaches from his whole character, then, from merely subjective reasons, must he include within his conscious influence an attempt to educate the patriotic sentiment.

This element of culture the nation is now, indeed, learning rapidly and well from the schoolmaster Experience, at the most enormous rates of tuition. But in this dear and bitter lesson the children do not participate. The consciousness of the young minds embraces only the ruder expressions of the struggle of the nation. Of its higher, historical relations; of its connec-

tion with individual character, on the one hand, and with the interests of the race, on the other; of national honor and national life; they know nothing, and care nothing.

The task of the teacher, then, is manifest. How shall he convert into *character* the impulses which the youth catch from the military display, and from the dejection or exultation of their parents?

These times furnish to the children holidays and pageantry. It is not these alone that should fix the impression which they receive of the Great Rebellion. A military spirit is, of itself, a bad thing, and we dread its growth. We would not have a youth taught the military art until he can appreciate the reasons why he is so taught. Children should conceive disgust of war and its insignia. This result could easily be effected. We are all apt to speak trivially and gleefully of the killing of rebels, and to read the accounts of our own men dying, suffering and toiling far from home, with a levity that will approve itself to a single earnest thought as fearfully out of place. War is the most awfully solemn concern in which human beings can engage. Loathsome in its practice, most lasting in its miserable consequences, it demands a most tremendous juncture of the affairs of men to justify its mere mention. We find in our country this justifying crisis. This is our position. We are not celebrating festivities. That would be labor well bestowed, which should be devoted, in the school-room, to the formation of a true idea, in the minds of the children, of the terrible nature of the civil war. Whoever accepts these views will not fail to find an abundance of means for reducing them to practice.

It is a misfortune of patriotic teachers in their special sphere, no less than of the nation, that our country yet lacks a hero of intellect, as well as of courage. We have a Washington in the past, but no present great man who represents the whole nation. The republic seems to have outgrown its men, and to deserve division. A great man, the representative of an abstract idea, is, himself, concrete, and appreciable by children. You can tell them what he does, and why he does it; and it will be an organic exercise of their intelligence, to understand his deed. The old men who, in their childhood, saw Washington, would not sell the remembrance of the occasion for untold treasures. But the name of no living man stands for all that we would say to our pupils about the war. We are driven to abstractions and to history. Yet *these, too, are fruitful, if we ourselves have been*

thoroughly permeated with the great ideas. If you really reverence the Fathers of the Union, and have entered into the spirit of its early days, you will inevitably impress upon your older pupils something of your own appreciation.

To us who live and labor safe in New England, the war is a remote thing, difficult to realize in a single one of its features. The exaggerations and errors of the telegraph, and the multitude of baseless rumors that circulate in the air, hardening us against the tidings from the war, diminish our interest in the events of the day. But while we perform our routine of duties, the crisis is thickening. Our dearest interests are becoming more and more imperiled. It is not fitting that we, by apathetic silence, teach our pupils that all is well in our country, when all, as yet, hangs in doubt. As well now, when discontent and gloom reign in the land, as when success shall come, may the teacher mirror forth to his pupils the varying phases of the momentous struggle; inculcating, by means of an understanding of events, those underlying principles which it is the duty of every republican citizen to cherish. S. T.

SALT.—An unhappy consequence of rebellion to the South is the scarcity of salt, which, once a hardly considered item in domestic expenditure, has grown enormously expensive. A friend of ours, who recently spent the night at Leesburg, reports that though the rebel officers were exceedingly polite to his party, which came under a flag of truce, they were not able to give them salt with their meat, and that the coffee savored more of peas than the genuine berry. We, however, have a surfeit of salt, coffee, and every thing else manufacturable or importable. A Syracuse correspondent writes us that over seven millions of bushels of salt have been manufactured and accepted by the Inspectors there since May 1, 1861.

"It has taken about 42 gallons of the water, which is pumped from wells about 228 feet deep, to make each bushel of salt. Say 7,000,000 by 42, or 294,000,000 of gallons of water, and who can tell from whence it is supplied, or whether the fountain will ever fail. From the time the Indians commenced making salt here to the present the water was never better or more abundant than now, and the manufacturer never had a more profitable year than this has been."

—*Exchange.*

To offer advice to an angry man, is like blowing against a tempest.

For the Schoolmaster.
The Primitive Language.

Among the many languages now spoken, there are but very few which can lay any sort of claim to the honor of being the primitive language. Those that have been formed by the union of two or more languages, as the English, French, Persian and others have been) certainly have no such claim. Those also that have been derived from some older languages, (as the German, Russian and others,) have no just claim to that high distinction. The history of the earliest days after the flood can alone cast a clear light upon this subject.

It was immediately after the flood that the whole earth was of one language and of one speech. And it was within that period in which that one language was spoken that Noah, having awaked from his wine, called his sons into his presence, and under divine inspiration, pronounced upon each in turn his patriarchal sentence, (Gen. 9: 25—27) setting before them the results of the course of life which they had severally chosen, and the destiny of their respective families. This transaction, though apparently overlooked by many of the most eminent writers on the subject, seems to have been of the most importance to the whole human race, and the key to the whole subsequent history of mankind.

And Noah said: "Cursed be Canaan: a servant of servants shall he be to his brethren." This sentence, terrible as it is, has been literally fulfilled upon the posterity of Ham in their political insignificance, social degradation, and moral debasement. Canaan is here named worthless, instead of Ham, because he, being the eldest son and born in the ark during the flood, (Gen. 9: 18) had become the acknowledged head and leader of that tribe.

Noah also said "Blessed be the Lord God Shem and Canaan shall be his servant," as many of the learned prefer to translate: "Blessed be Shem: the Lord is his God," etc. This has also been literally fulfilled; for true religion was preserved for many years only in the family of Shem.

Noah further said: "God shall enlarge Japheth: and he [God] shall dwell in the tents of Shem." The first clause has been fulfilled in the vast multitude of the posterity of Japheth. Here we see the basis laid for three races or families of men. The omniscient Jehovah saw fit to predicate these sentences, (a blessing upon one, a curse upon another, and a sentence with-

out either a blessing or curse upon the third,) whose far-reaching influence should descend down the stream of time, till other dispensations should originate counteracting influences, to re-mold the character and remodel the destiny of man.

These prophetic utterances indicate that each of the three tribes would work out a civilization, sustain a character, and meet a destiny very different from the others. It is evident that the import of these utterances was well understood in those days, and produced a mighty effect among men. Canaan seems to have resolved that he would not be a servant, much less "A SERVANT OF SERVANTS," and immediately set himself to work to give such a turn to human affairs that he and his tribe should take the lead and govern the rest of mankind. The battles and skirmishes that followed are not described for us, but the record irresistably leads us to the conclusion that the Canaanites were not worsted in the contest, for at a day not long subsequent we find Nimrod, a nephew of Canaan, at the head of affairs in the valley of the Euphrates, having, apparently, the great majority of the people under his government. The tower of Babel was then and there built, by the combined labor of those who yielded to the power of Nimrod, as the capitol of his kingdom and centre of human power and civilization. To break the power of Nimrod had thus become a matter of imperative necessity for, living together in one community would amalgamate the tribes, blend their destiny and frustrate the fulfillment of the prophecies. A miracle was therefore wrought at Babel, which impelled the people to separate, their language was confounded that they might not understand each other's speech. This was an important event, very important in those early days, and has sent down its influence all along the stream of time to the present day.

It is most probable that in this confusion of tongues only three languages were made, to correspond with the three sons of Noah. A greater number was not necessary to secure the evident object,—the overthrow of Nimrod's power and dispersion of mankind. But that number was absolutely necessary to separate Japhethites and Shemites from Canaanites and from each other. This miracle did not originate mere dialectic differences in their language, (for these are produced by causes constantly in operation in all widely used languages,) but it confounded the very roots and primitives of human speech. No

other event known in the history of man could thus confound his language. Though all the languages of Europe and southwestern Asia have their primitive words the same, there is a class of languages in Eastern Asia, including Chinese and Japanese, whose primitives are entirely different.

How, then, in the midst of all this can the *primitive* language of men be discovered? If it should be found that any portion of the human family succeeded in resisting the power of Nimrod, and was not engaged in building Babel, it would seem highly probable, if not certain, that their language was not subject to the confusion of Babel, and was the real primitive language. Was there not such a family? It is believed that the patriarch Eber and all his family, with the grand patriarch, ШЕМ, as their leader and head, were successful in resisting the efforts of Nimrod to subdue them, maintained their independence, and preserved, during the building of Babel, the pure, holy and acceptable worship of Jehovah. This will explain several things not otherwise easily accounted for:

1. It shows why Shem is called the father [leader, head, chief] of all the children of Eber. Gen. 10: 21.

2. It shows why Abraham was called the Hebrew, or Heberite.

3. It shows why Abraham and his posterity regarded the Heberites as peculiarly their kinsmen, more than the other posterity of Shem.

4. It shows why the appellative Hebrew became, in the rest of the world, a term of reproach.

5. It shows the reason and propriety of the claim persistently made by the Israelites, that theirs is the primitive language of man.

6. And finally, it shows why the cognate languages spoken by the posterity of Heber have, by the learned generally, been exclusively regarded as Shemitic.

That Abraham was of the posterity of Heber is certain from the genealogy given, (Genesis 11: 16—26,) and that he regarded the Heberites as peculiarly his kinsmen, appears from the fact that he would have Isaac take a wife from no other but that stock of the human family. The directions given to Jacob respecting a wife prove that Isaac entertained the same feelings. And the general hatred with which the Hebrews were regarded, is seen in numerous passages of Scripture, and culminated in the days of King David, who had to fight for life and the existence of the kingdom for many years in succession. It

was prophesied that true religion would be cherished and perpetuated in the family of Shem, and how was this fulfilled but by successful resistance to the power of Nimrod and all his impious and idolatrous horde? For the worship of Jehovah was certainly prohibited in Babel, and idolatry substituted.

It may be urged that many other languages besides those commonly called Shemitic have the same root-words that they have, and therefore it is to be presumed that the whole tribe of Shem shared the same condition in those early days, all going into Babel or all remaining out of it together. But that conclusion is broader than the premises; for it is not necessary to suppose that the confusion of language at Babel made any change in the primitive words of any of the Shemites who were concerned in building that famous tower. One of the tribes might retain the original language of Noah.

It is therefore a legitimate conclusion that those languages which are commonly called Shemitic, but are really Heberite, or Hebrew, are the true and real primitive language of mankind, with few and comparatively unimportant additions and changes. BETA.

For the Schoolmaster.

"The Hutchinsons" in Old Warwick.

Our citizens had a rare treat in the concert of these singers recently. Those who had before heard them, were the more anxious to listen to their soul-stirring music and those who had not, eagerly embraced the opportunity to listen to songs which have inspired the hearts of vast multitudes.

There was a good audience, and their programme presented a choice selection, in which, as usual, the grave and the gay were beautifully blended. There was an excellent judgment displayed in introducing enough of those pieces which are light and humorous to keep up the lively interest with the audience which prepared them to receive some of the most beautiful sentiments and the highest moral teaching.

There seems always to have been in this family a strong sympathy with the unfortunate, and in their songs they have ever aimed to cheer such and to plead with the community in their behalf. They have a large sympathy with mankind, and their singing seems to be the voice of humanity, sighing or smiling as they present the ever-varying emotions.

The Hutchinsons are a musical family in a sense higher than that of being mere singers.

There are many good singers who deserve no higher credit than that of being good musical instruments. Their music is evidently in the nature, and not merely in their voices, while these are sweet and harmonious.

No one can listen to those solos of Mrs. Hutchinson without the highest admiration of their sweetness, and without impression from that countenance beaming with eloquence; and in the choruses the harmony has a pleasing effect.

They have a salutary influence, affording to all classes high entertainment, and at the same time impressing some of the highest principles of morality and feelings truly humane. Their listening audiences look wishfully after them as when a melodious bird has flown.

May the career of this family, with its young members, be as successful as that of the original family.

The community will look with interest to the maturity of a group which give so much promise in their childhood, and whose development will take place under the culture of parents having such admirable qualifications.

The Night Schools of New York.

CHARACTER OF THE SCHOOLS — ATTENDANCE AND DISCIPLINE.

THERE are now in operation in this city forty-two public evening schools, about half of which are for males and the remainder for females. The number of teachers employed is four hundred, chiefly selected from those engaged in the day schools, who, by enlarging the sphere of their duties, in this way receive a slight addition in salary. The "local boards of school officers" nominate the night school teachers.

The object of the evening schools, as distinguished from the ordinary ward schools, is to attract the voluntary attendance of a class of persons whose employments during the day preclude their enjoyment of the daily course of study, and it is a rule that none who attend the day schools shall be admitted at night. We must, then, believe that all those processions of little children which form so large a part of the attendance at the night schools are engaged during the day in some industrial avocation, and are necessarily unfit to be kept up late in the evening to drag wearily over unappreciated lessons. The City Superintendent's report wisely says: "In my last report I assigned some reasons for arriving at the conclusion that children

under twelve years of age should not be permitted to enter our evening schools, and another year's observation and experience have only confirmed me in the correctness of the opinions then expressed."

CHARACTER OF THE PUPILS.

The attendance at the night schools is to a large extent composed of foreigners and their children, who are mainly ignorant of our language, and are taught its peculiarities by teachers of their own nationalities, who have become thoroughly familiar with it. In the German classes especially the utmost diligence is observable, and it not unfrequently occurs that elderly men, erudite in the literature of their own countries, will, immediately upon taking up their residence here, accept with avidity the advantages offered in the night schools, and study with a determination which speedily results in the most satisfactory advancement.

The opening night of a term in the evening schools is a period dreaded by the teachers and order-loving school officers. It is estimated that at least three weeks are required to "weed out" the rebellious spirits, who make the tour of the schools in order to test the quality of the teachers' endurance, with no higher aim than their own amusement. Their tests consist of various feats of agility performed during the momentary absence of the teacher, such as piling up slates and jumping upon them, a process which interferes with the future usefulness of these articles; tricks of legerdemain and various annoyances, ingeniously devised and pertinaciously adhered to. The schools soon get rid of these rebellious spirits and the work begins in earnest.

Boys and men, of ages ranging from seven to sixty years, attend the better conducted schools; the "old boys" often proving themselves the hardest students. In one school there is a class of females, whose ages range from sixteen to thirty years, and whose mien and dress indicate their employment in the cleaner trades, such as mantilla making, shop-tending, &c. The course of instruction in this school is purely oral.

A class of boys called "tobacco strippers" attend the evening schools and are recognizable with moderately developed olfactories at a distance of ten or fifteen feet, by the peculiar aroma pertaining to their hair and clothes. They are all employed in the tobacco factories and pass their evenings at school. In another place there is one class entirely composed of men be-

tween the ages of twenty and forty, who are unwilling to be placed with little boys, although in fact they are far behind some of the youngest in intelligence and acquirements. The women of advanced years are not so fastidious, but receive with patient attention the same instruction which is adapted to the child beside them.

CIVILIZING INFLUENCES.

In Clark street, near Broome, there is a school-room furnished with appropriate objects of ornament and utility, all combining to impress the pupil's mind with agreeable associations. A library at one end of the room is well stored with books upon history, biography, travels, poetry and science generally, while busts, pictures and drawings adorn the walls. At the Seventeenth street school, also, a genial spirit animates the exercises; the teachers relieving the dryer portions of study by reading to the pupils a story, an essay, or a passage of history. The principal of this school argues that the hard-working mechanic, for whom these places of instruction are provided, would go to bed at home rather than attend a night-school where the reins are pulled too tightly upon him. "The Constitution of the United States" forms one of a series of familiar lectures which are now going on at this school, and as most of the attendants are voters, the subject becomes a matter of interest and practical importance to them.

In some of the schools there are large and well-furnished cases of chemical apparatus, and musical entertainments are also made an attractive feature. In one of the wards musical *soirees* are held twice a week, and not unfrequently rendered doubly attractive by high artistic talent, which is volunteered for the occasion.

FEMALE PUPILS.

In the female schools there are frequently some noticeable specimens of matronly scholars. In one school a married woman, having no children, has been a punctual attendant for three terms, and is desirous of continuing through the entire course of study. An Irish girl who had been a pupil married a Chinese, and made him "come along to school," so that they passed their honeymoon in the pursuit of knowledge. In another case, an old man, while engaged in looking for his grandson, was induced to join him in study, and has since become one of the most diligent of scholars; and it sometimes occurs three generations are represented in the same school, meeting in the same class on occasions when reviews take place.

DISCIPLINE.

In many of these schools the rod is still used, and the teachers are perplexed and annoyed by the perversity of the younger children who attend; but in the best conducted establishments the whip is laid aside and the scholar's pride is appealed to. The results of the system of moral suasion are perfectly illustrated in the school in Wooster street, where flogging never occurs, and where good order always prevails. One evening recently we found the teachers in the female department of this school in the act of giving the pupils an epitome of current events, assisting the pupils' comprehension of the movements of our armies by sketching plans of important points upon the black-board. The male department is conducted upon a plan of semi-military discipline, and the Boys enjoy the novelty.

The evening schools, as a whole, are excellent institutions, and are doing a good work, affording to persons of all ages and nationalities the full benefits of gratuitous elementary education. They are generally well attended, and the teachers, with few exceptions, are capable and earnest.—*New York Evening Post*.

For the Schoolmaster.

Boys, Be Civil to Your Companions.

"Is that your father's coat, Kasee?" said a lively boy to one of his schoolmates, who was walking at some distance ahead of him. The boys had just come out from church on Sabbath afternoon, and the question was asked in the hearing of quite a group of young persons. It raised a laugh among the mates of the lad who asked it, and this was no doubt the design in asking it in such a public place. Some of the lads probably thought it was *smart*, but it was that *kind* of smartness which shows itself by knocking off a boy's cap, or hitting him a slap or a kick. It pleases a certain class, but not that class of boys whose tastes and habits are most polite and refined. There were boys in the company who *blushed* when they heard the question given above. They knew that it would mortify Kasee, and they would take no pleasure in sport that injured the feelings of any one.

Kasee's coat was rather large, but still it looked very well, and there was really nothing about it that could seem a sufficient reason that it should be ridiculed. Had it been an unbecoming coat it would have been uncivil to make fun of it, as, in that case, it would probably have been worn for some good reason.

If the boy's parents had been poor, and could have procured no better one for him, it would have been very ungenerous to mortify him by having sport made about it. No boy would be willing to *receive* such treatment, and for that reason should not give it.

But in this case it was very ungentlemanly and strange in the boy who asked the question, as his coat *was made* from his father's. It was a nice coat, and no worse for this, but he would have probably been quite offended had some boy asked him such a question, especially before company. He might have replied, "None of your business," but he did not see how it would look if the parties changed places.

It costs little to be civil, and that will secure applause from the highest rank in society, and will afford happiness instead of pain to others.

"The Press," as a National Element.

THE Boston *Evening Journal* says it was Napoleon who entertained such a just horror of journalists. He was a great man and knew their influence. He knew that that influence was not always confided to discreet men; for journalists are but human, with all the frailty of mortal men. Competition, and a desire to excel, have wrought wonderful changes in the character of newspapers in this country within the past ten years. In former times an editor who possessed good sound *judgment*, and in his articles attempted to base his opinion upon reliable facts, was regarded with respect. The leading characteristic of journalism now-a-days is *smartness*. The telegraph sends its batch of daily lies and the editorial pulse is quickened. With pen in hand, the editor sits down under the influence of the latest emotion and writes. If his sentences are well turned, if there is a tartness in his remarks and a supply of pure Saxon to please the ear and eye, the article is accepted by the public and regarded as able. The next day the same editor, under another influence, contradicts his notions of the day before, simply because he must have a timely article to suit public taste. There are papers to which these remarks are not applicable, but the style of the *American press* is *sensational*; and in this country, where everybody reads, the papers give a tone to conversation, and we need not attempt to prove how readily public opinion takes its shade from the coloring which the newspapers give to any subject.—*N. York Home Journal*.

A Terrible Tragedy.

LAST night a terrible tragedy was enacted in my cattle-fold by two daring lions. The night was intensely dark, with occasional rain; and fearing lions might select such a night to surprise their prey, I sat up watching until a late hour. I had just lain down, remarking to my friend that in case of a visit from these brutes the oxen would give the alarm, when on a sudden there arose an awful scream, followed by a death-like groan, such as I shall never forget; the very recollection of it chills my blood. Two lions had entered the inclosures, and succeeded in carrying away a poor fellow, whom they tore to pieces and devoured within a short distance of our camp. We neither could nor dared attempt a rescue. The unfortunate man was lying in his hut with his wife and two little children, when one of the monsters forced his way through from the back and seized him, at the same time inflicting two wounds upon the woman. The poor wretch, in his hurried exit, had evidently, in endeavoring to save himself, laid hold of the poles of the hovel, for the whole back part of the tenement was carried away.—*Andersson's African Travels*.

If a great person has omitted rewarding your services, do not talk of it. Perhaps he may not yet have had an opportunity. For they have always on hand expectants innumerable, and the clamorous are too generally gratified before the deserving. Besides, it is the way to draw his displeasure upon you, which can do you no good, but will make bad worse. If the services you did were voluntary, you ought not to expect any return, because you made a present of them unasked. And a free gift is not to be turned into a loan, to draw the person you have served into debt. If you have served a great person merely with a view to self-interest, perhaps he is aware of that, and rewards you accordingly. Nor can you justly complain. He owes you nothing; it was not him you meant to serve.

A SMART YOUTH!—When asked how he got out of prison, a witty rogue replied:—"I got out of my cell by ingenuity, ran up stairs with agility, crawled out of the back window in secrecy, slid down the lightning-rod with rapidity, walked out of town with dignity, and am now basking in the sunshine of liberty!"

HARMLESS mirth is the best cordial against the consumption of the spirits.

Educational Intelligence.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to the PUBLISHERS OF THE SCHOOLMASTER, Providence.

Rhode Island Teachers' Institute at Peacedale.

Pursuant to notice of the Committee, a goodly number of teachers from different parts of the South County assembled on Friday, Dec. 23, at Hazard Hall, at 10½ o'clock. Commissioner Rousmaniere called the meeting to order. He urged in a few introductory remarks the importance of all teachers present, taking an active part in the exercises—not even excepting the ladies, who did not favor the Institute with their experience at the last meeting.

On motion of Mr. J. H. Tefft, of Kingston, Mr. M. S. Greene, of Westerly, was elected Secretary of the meeting. Mr. Rousmaniere stated the following as the question for discussion: "Which is more important—to guard pupils against temptation to do wrong, or teach them to withstand it?"

Mr. Tefft said he would prefer to instruct the pupil to withstand temptation; to bear up under evil influence, overcome difficulties, and thus develop manliness and force of character. Pupils may not always be under the same teacher's charge, yet while they are, that teacher should prepare them to stand firm against temptation at all times.

Mr. Curtis, of Charlestown, would place before and impress upon the mind of the child, the importance of withstanding allurements to evil, and also inculcate the principle of thinking and acting rightly.

Prof. Coon, of Hopkinton Academy, said it was well to present the influence of temptation to the mind of the child, and thus show him the necessity of resisting it. There should be an outside power exercised by way of imbuing the pupil with moral proclivities. Different dispositions require different kinds of training as regards the nature and extent of the discipline.

Mr. Greene, of Westerly, argued that the great object of all teaching is preparation for practical life. We teach arithmetic to enable a pupil to transact the business of life. As we are surrounded by temptations, it is of the greatest importance to prepare the child to withstand what he will every day encounter.

Mr. Rousmaniere maintained that the end of all true education is to build up a symmetrical and well-finished intellectual and moral character.

In teaching an individual a trade, we explain to him the nature and use of the mechanical implements he may use. In our natures we are depraved, and being surrounded with evil we should be prepared to meet and withstand it. We should let our influence assist the tempted, and the more we are subjected to trials, the stronger we become. The Almighty has given us an antidote for every pain. Pupils should be taught to meet and endure temptation, as there-

by they acquire stability of principle and moral firmness. Show the young man or woman what temptations await them, and lead them up to the difficulty with no other purpose than that of surmounting it. God in his infinite love and wisdom, endows his people with great powers only to make them more noble, more Godlike, by bringing them face to face with the stern realities of life. Without temptation, our entire being—our physical, moral, intellectual, and spiritual powers—would be imperfectly and inefficiently developed and harmonized. How can the heart ever be rendered generous and sympathetic unless it is familiarized with scenes of misery and suffering? How can any of our powers of mind or body be made strong and active without exercise? If people do not accustom and prepare themselves to take this world as it is to them, they will certainly fail to fulfil the great mission and duty of man. We are under a bounden duty to use discretion in these matters. We are not to abandon one thing and to exclude another. This is not consistent with reason and nature. The child should not merely be taught to avoid or withstand temptation for the mere purpose of showing that it is right to do so; but the effects of this discipline upon himself and those around him, should be the great end and good to be attained.

Mr. Bentley, of Westerly, remarked that it is an established fact that too much exposure is more liable to discourage and injure them than it is to strengthen and improve the subject of temptation; and from the weakness of the child's mental and physical powers, he should be kept as free as possible from temptations until capable of withstanding it.

Here, at the suggestion of Mr. Greene, the Institute took up the discussion of the following question: "What are the difficulties in the way of success in teaching Geography, and what are their remedies?"

Mr. Greene said one great difficulty in teaching Geography, as in everything else, is the want of system and the failure to square everything by that system. Very many pupils will commit the text to memory, and not retain a single idea of the lesson. The subject should be elucidated and rendered interesting by practical extemporaneous lectures and by drawings.

Mr. Tefft thought one of the greatest difficulties in teaching small children, arose from believing that if they have learned what is in the book they have prepared a good lesson—a fact revealed by propounding some general questions to a class. Objects in and out of the school-room should be presented to illustrate lessons. Where the best apparatus is not at hand, the next best thing should be brought into requisition. The power of observation in connection with this study should be exercised.

Mr. Davis said the injurious practice of having questions and answers studied and recited as found in the text-book should be avoided. The scholars should practice map-drawing on the slate and black-board. They should question each other about the

esson, and the teacher in allowing his pupil to interrogate him need not fear losing his dignity.

Mr. Marriot alluded to his method of occasionally arranging all his geographical classes in one, and exercising them upon "common sense questions." Bring familiar objects before the mind of the scholar; endeavor to make the subject attractive and interesting, and all the difficulties will be overcome.

Mr. Tillinghast always found the most difficulty in teaching mathematical geography. He illustrated geography by using the Rhode Island map, and pointing out the places designated thereupon, within the view of his school-room. He exercised the class by allowing one member to question the one next in position, and so on around the class. Classes often ask forty questions, when there are only twelve in the book. He described some lake, river, section of country, or some city, and called upon the scholars to tell what particular object was under consideration.

Mr. Stanton spoke of the difficulty and importance of conveying to scholars a correct and practical idea of the shape of the earth and the different points of the compass. He would exercise a class on such questions as would not admit of an affirmative answer; as for instance, "What part of Canada borders on Michigan?"

AFTERNOON SESSION.

At 2 o'clock, the chairman, Hon. Mr. Rousmaniere, called the Institute to order and read the subjoined question for discussion:

"What is the best way of illustrating decimal fractions?"

The conference upon this question was quite animated and protracted.

Messrs. Davis, Tillinghast, Stanton, Tefft and Greene, Mr. and Peckham, examining committee for South Kingstown, and others, participated in the debate. Considerable diversity of opinion was shown as to whether vulgar fractions should precede decimal fractions in teaching Arithmetic, or whether decimal fractions were not founded upon common fractions—the latter arising from division.

FRIDAY EVENING SESSION.

At half-past seven o'clock in the evening, a formal lecture was delivered by the Hon. Henry Rousmaniere, which imparted much variety and interest to the exercises. It was a well studied discourse, methodical and philosophical in its treatment, while its illustrations drew largely upon the resources of literature, and developed a wide range of scholarship. We give simply the way-marks of thought, omitting the decorations of style which were profuse and brilliant. The subject was "Some of the relations of the body and mind to each other." The two great laws, said the lecturer, enacted by an all-wise Providence for the regulation of the body, are—first, the law of growth; secondly, the law of health.

The law of growth operates so gently that some erroneously suppose that they are the architects of their physical strength. It permeates our entire system and yet so equalized are all its forces as to leave us

free to act in accordance with its power, or to resist and be crushed by it.

Some of the means through which the law of growth operates are physical cleanliness, active exercise, and exposure to the fresh air.

The second law of the body is the law of health. We only become conscious of this law when we have violated it. As long as we obey it, there can be no spasmodic irregularity in the action of any part of the body. Health is really the rule, and disease the exception—an astonishing fact when we survey the human form with its transcendently varied function of mechanism, and the delicacy and beauty of its artistic proportions. Yet amid this multitudinous array of seen and unseen contrivances, all is reduced under Divine care to order by the great principle of bodily life acting through the laws of growth and health.

The second division of the lecture was the relation of the mind to the body. We know the mind from its effects rather than from its essence. Matter is its agent. The laws of mind seek the laws of matter as a basis for connecting the spiritual substance to the material organization.

The first law of the mind is the law of use. This is analogous to the law of growth in the body. If the law of growth were suspended in a young person, every part of the frame would remain in perpetual immaturity. If the law of use were suspended in the mind, each faculty would dwindle into insignificance for want of mental exercise. The full growth of the body is the only basis on which the mental law of use is founded. Some may urge that many men of genius have been an exception to this law of mental growth. But these geniuses, like Edgar Poe, De Quincey, Leibnitz, Coleridge and others, in their minds resembled their bodies—amid much that was brilliant there was more that was radically unsound. The body is an out-growth of the mind, as a temple is the outward semblance of the genius of the architect. Every voluntary act of the body is a joint result of all the organs acting in unity and multiplicity at the same time. So, also, all our faculties are concerned in any operation of the mind that develops itself into outward action.

The mind is a unit, though manifesting itself through different faculties. Sometimes one faculty will predominate and sometimes another. A man who performs a heroic, magnanimous deed, awakes all his faculties in unison; a man who performs a mean, ignoble action, exercises all his faculties in discord. If he acts rightly he improves; if he acts wrongly he degenerates.

Usefulness is the price of virtue. Talents, however brilliant, if they are not in obedience to the laws of the mind, are useless. This law of use lies at the threshold of all our duties. It presides over the first and the last volition of our minds. Yet no law is so much slighted and so often violated. The most common misuse of the mind is among very selfish men. How many men who began life with liberal views have

forced themselves to misuse their faculties to attain only selfish ends. There is no fallacy so stupendous as that which makes happiness to consist in wealth. The very life of happiness is wholly interior, whereas wealth is something exterior to the mind.

Another common misuse of the mind is the indulgence of a spirit of imitation. Some persons have no settled sentiments, but are whispering galleries to reëcho those of others. Such imitation is fatal to all independence of thought and action. Another misuse of our gifts is scandal; another is bigotry. The feelings of the heart may be friendly when creeds differ. It is far better to persuade with charity, than to attempt to convert with frowns.

The right use of our faculties depends on many conditions. First, we should cultivate a taste for select reading; for rich works of Art; for natural scenery. Well may poets like Longfellow, divines like Starr King, and landscape painters like Durant, journey every summer to the scientific cabinet in the mountains of New Hampshire, where marvellous specimens, beyond all reach of human Art, are preserved on rocky shelves as they were first placed by the Divine Artist. These hills are geologically older than the Alps or the Andes. Countless cycles of time past, the whole interior of the earth was one vast burning laboratory, where the fuel was granite, the chemical agency was fire, and the great Chemist was Jehovah. From this universe in flames, the first ambassador that rose up, with credentials inscribed on granite not yet cold, was the White Mountains. They are the glory of American scenery.

The second law of the mind is the law of development. This is analogous to the law of bodily health and is based upon it. When the various mental faculties have entered into the kingdom of use or to a knowledge of right and goodness, then the whole mind enjoys a state of mental health presided over by the law of development. It then acts like a unit, shows its knowledge by intuition, and discovers truth not by fragments, but at a single glance. This point of development is seldom attained in this world. The entire mind must be planted with the seeds of truth, and the great subsoil plough of trial and affliction must go deep into it, before it can produce fruit for heaven. This law is natural, inasmuch as it demands the coöperation of man, and Divine, inasmuch as the Almighty frames it.

The education which resulted in the convulsive genius of Byron and the volcanic energies of Voltaire was based neither on the normal health of the physical man nor on the moral unfolding of the spiritual man. In them was elicited a sense of the beautiful, rather than the true and the right; the imagination, not the conscience; the physical appetites, not the god-like capacities of the soul. The highest growth and the greatest development begins in the body, but ends with the soul. The true development of man's nature is a most exquisite work of art, though often composed of crude and coarse materials. The canvass may be grief and anguish, the colors tears and

blood; the pencil fierce temptation; but out of these will gleam a landscape as beautiful as if heaven had descended to earth. That man who, out of blasted hopes, distills the sweetest odors of faith and duty; who turns even bitter temptations into a crown of glory; the heart of such a man shall become a garden planted by the finger of the Almighty and watered by His hand.

After the lecture there was a spirited discussion of the question, "What is good order in school, and how shall it be secured?"

Remarks were made by Messrs. Mowry, of Providence; Staunton, of Hopkinton City; Briggs, of East Greenwich; Tillinghast and Kinney, of Hopkinton, and Professor Coon, of Hopkinton Academy, Ashaway.

Such re-unions of those who preside over the interests of public instruction in our State, cannot fail to prove highly useful. By practical lectures and debates they enlarge and develop the capacity of the teacher for efficient work; while they quicken professional enthusiasm, promote fraternal sympathy and coöperation, and awaken the interest of parents who attend the meetings, in the condition and improvement of the District School. The present Institute in point of attendance and vivacity came up to the standard of those of olden time, which have doubtless been some of the most effective instrumentalities in building up our present noble and symmetrical State Educational institutions.

SECOND DAY—SATURDAY.

On Saturday morning, at 9 o'clock, the Institute was called to order by the chairman. Mr. Briggs, of East Greenwich, proposed for discussion the following question: "What is the best method for conducting an exercise in reading?" In the discussion of this subject, Messrs. Briggs, Tefft, Davis, Thurber, Coon, Miner and Bentley participated, each proposing different methods of teaching.

At ten o'clock a familiar lecture was given by Joshua Kendall, Esq., of the State Normal School.

The lecture was a very thorough exposition of the best methods of teaching spelling, and was illustrated by a model class composed of members of the Institute.

In the afternoon, at half-past one o'clock, a familiar lecture was delivered by Wm. A. Mowry, Esq., on the subject of Enunciation. The lecturer considered this a very difficult study. No one spoke the English language in its purity, because no one learned to enunciate properly. Mr. Mowry made many practical suggestions as to the method of conducting classes in this study, and remedying the evils which are now so prevalent. Mr. Joshua Kendall also offered some remarks in further elucidation of the subject.

The following question debated at the last meeting of the Institute was then called up, viz: "What are the duties of teachers to their country at the present crisis?" Mr. Mowry in a forcible manner advocated the introduction of the study of the Constitution of the United States into every school throughout the

loyal part of the country. Further debate was prevented by the arrival of the hour for adjournment.

Messrs. Mowry, Briggs and Miner were appointed a Committee on Resolutions, and reported the following which was adopted:

Resolved, That we express our gratitude to the citizens of Peacedale, Wakefield and Rocky Brook, for their kindness and hospitality extended so liberally to the members of the Institute during its present session; to Rowland G. Hazard, Esq., for the free use of his beautiful and convenient hall; to the Hon. Henry Rousmaniere for his lecture of last evening, and for his promptness and efficiency as our presiding officer.

We learn from the Secretary that there were between seventy and eighty teachers present at this meeting of the Institute. The whole tenor of the exercises furnished a happy illustration of its value as an instrumentality for the professional improvement of Rhode Island teachers.

Teachers' Institute at Chepachet.

A meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction was held at Chepachet on Friday and Saturday, January 3d and 4th, 1862, and was attended by about fifty teachers. The Hon. Henry Rousmaniere made remarks introductory to the business of the session. The Institute then engaged in interesting discussions upon the best methods of teaching writing and spelling.

On Friday evening the Commissioner gave a lecture on the principles of true education, and some of the difficulties in the way of its advancement.

The discussions of Saturday morning were on the following questions: 1st, On the comparative advantage of studying written arithmetic alone, and of connecting oral with written throughout the entire course; 2d, To what extent can English composition be taught in our schools? The debate was participated in by the Commissioner, Messrs. Chase, Brown, Peckham, Mowry and others.

At 11 o'clock, the Institute listened to a familiar lecture from Mr. N. W. DeMunn, on the subject of arithmetic and methods of abbreviating its operations.

In the afternoon a plea in behalf of the study of book-keeping as an exercise in common schools, was made by Mr. S. A. Potter, of Providence.

The last question discussed at the meeting was the following: "To what extent should teachers aim to control the conduct of their pupils out of school?"

The Institute adjourned after the usual resolutions of thanks.

If a favor is asked of you, grant it, if you can. If not, refuse it in such a manner as that one denial may be sufficient.

Education in the State of New York.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPORT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

CITY SCHOOLS AND PARTY INFLUENCES.

The city schools are kept in session during the entire year, except vacations, which are too few and brief rather than too frequent and long; and thus, by holding out the inducement of continued employment and fair compensation, competent teachers are easily secured, and the evils of frequent changes are, to a very great extent, avoided.

It is true this department of our school system has its abuses as well as its advantages. In the control and disbursement of large sums of money raised in many of the cities, opportunity is sometimes afforded by unscrupulous men to divert it to other than legitimate uses; and in those cities where the office is elective it not unfrequently happens that the incumbent prostitutes his position at the beck of his constituents, to the promotion of party, or, indeed, of sectarian interests. Corrupt men have not unfrequently been elevated to these places of responsibility and trust who have made their position subserve, not the advancement of education, but their own vile and corrupt purposes.

The practical question is, cannot some system be devised, general in its application, yet clear and specific in operation, that shall secure to all the cities of the State immunity from these palpable abuses, and at the same time leave them in as great a measure as now, though in a different form, to control their own educational affairs?

Is it not due to the liberal, generous and enlightened policy which the cities of our State have adopted, in providing so bountifully the means for the education of their own youth, while patiently bearing the burden of taxation for the general educational purposes of the State—is it not due to them, that they be provided with charters that shall exempt them from liability to the abuses which I have exposed? The solution of this question I leave to the wisdom of the legislature.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

The results of teachers' institutes the present year have been most gratifying. An apprehension was generally and most naturally entertained, that owing to our national misfortunes, in the contemplation of which the whole mind of the people seemed to be absorbed, the attendance upon teachers' institutes would be greatly reduced, and the general interest and value of their instructions would be much less than in past and prosperous years. So far from realizing this apprehension, the attendance has been greater this year than ever before.

FAVORITISM IN TEACHERS' APPOINTMENTS.

The practice of hiring relatives, often, indeed generally against the wishes of a large portion of the patrons of the school, is another fruitful source

of contention and difficulty. The by-laws of the Board of Education of the city of New York prohibit the employment of teachers sustaining a relationship within four degrees by either blood or marriage, to any school officer entitled to act upon the question. A similar just provision restrains canal officers from pensioning their relatives upon the State. The abuse becomes especially flagrant when practiced, as it sometimes is, by a sole trustee, against the unanimous protest of the patrons of the school.

Indeed, the exercise of arbitrary power in the employment of any teacher, against whom, for any cause, there is a sentiment on the part of the inhabitants very nearly unanimous, ought, in some way, to be controlled.

MILITARY TRAINING IN OUR SCHOOLS.

Experience is the great teacher. Events are the lessons of life. These trite maxims are now having a severe and practical enforcement in the history which, as a nation and people, we are making from day to day. The universal neglect of any preparation, through military discipline, for the stern realities that are upon us, is now everywhere deprecated as weakness and folly. With this sad conviction comes also the suggestion, for present improvement and future profit, that a few minutes taken each day from the hours of school, for the purpose of going through the simple evolutions of military practice and the manual of arms, besides affording needed exercise and recreation, would fix those habits of prompt and concerted action, that ease and facility of movement in combination and mass, which would be the best possible preparation for a citizen soldiery for the sudden exigencies that have befallen us. If it be true that the child should learn that which he will have occasion to use when he becomes a man—and the proposition is too self-evident for denial—then, in view of the service which the citizen may be called upon to render in defence of his country, does that preparation which will make such service most effective become an important consideration in the training of the child.

And, aside from its utility as a preparation for the possible exigencies of war, the discipline would be hardly less valuable as a preparation for the relations and duties incident to times of peace. The soldier, by the discipline of the camp and field, becomes obedient to constituted authorities, respectful to superiors, prompt in action, emulous of excellence, faithful to the duty of the present time. These qualities are no less essential to the proper fulfillment of the relations of common life, and would serve to impart vigor, method and effectiveness to ordinary pursuits.

How far such exercises may be profitably introduced into our smaller country schools, and what agency the legislature may properly exert in their promotion, I leave for its wisdom to determine. In many of our larger schools it is already becoming

an interesting feature, and with a view to the demand which is likely to be made for teachers competent to instruct in this important branch of training, it has been introduced as a regular exercise in the Normal School.

These simple suggestions contain the germ of an idea, which, fully elaborated, would lead into a discussion of the policy of establishing a State military school. Our late experience of the results of national military schools has been terribly bitter, and should be eminently suggestive. These institutions have been maintained at an immense cost, borne chiefly by that portion of the country found loyal to-day: while a large proportion of their graduates holding commissions in the service of the United States resign upon the first occasion of hostilities, in preparation for which they have been educated, promoted and paid; and, as if this were not enough, they transfer to the service of our enemies the knowledge and skill which we have helped them to acquire! A more damning record of black ingratitude will never be found inscribed on the pages of history than that which recounts the double-dyed treason of these pampered and petted ingrates, these lordly scions of a military aristocracy. But the point which we are chiefly interested in considering is, whether such dearly-bought experience shall inspire us with wisdom in the direction of our future policy and plans.

Should the legislature regard as of any considerable importance the idea herein vaguely hinted rather than definitely stated, I would further suggest the propriety of considering it in connection with such action, if any, as it may be pleased to take in aid of the People's College already alluded to, by making provision for the establishment therein of a military department.

I submit the general subject to your consideration, as among the incidental features of educational development brought to view by the stirring events of the present time.

Forefathers' Day.

OUR readers all understand that the landing took place on the 11th of December, *Old Style*. The question, then, to be settled is, whether ten or eleven days should be added, to reduce that date to the proper date, *New Style*. What is the origin of this difference of dates, known as *Old Style* and *New Style*? Simply this: One year is a revolution of the earth around the sun—from an equinox, or any other point agreed upon, to the same point again. The nearest number of whole days in this annual revolution was determined to be 365, and thus the years were reckoned for centuries. It was ascertained, however, that this period was five or six hours less than an exact year. Julius Cæsar, therefore, in the century preceding the Christian era, sought to correct this discrepancy between the astronomical and civil

ear, by adding one day, once in every four years, to the month of February. To correct the error of eighty days, already accumulated in the progress of centuries, he added this to the ordinary year of 365 days, making one year of 445 days. This was called the *Year of Confusion*.

But again: this six hours, added to each 365 days, proved too large an increase, by about eleven minutes annually. So that another discrepancy between the computed return of the sun to the equinox, and the actual return, or between the civil year and the astronomical, was slowly accumulating; a difference of one day in one hundred and thirty-one years. Thus in the year 1682, when the error had amounted to ten days, Pope Gregory proposed the necessary correction, by dropping ten days from the reckoning, and calling the 6th of October the 16th. To prevent the accumulation of the like error in the future, he proposed to omit the leap year every 100th year, except each 400th. By this method the error cannot amount to one day in 2500 years.

Now note, that while the Pope's order was obeyed, and his arrangement adopted without much delay in the countries of Catholic Europe, it was not regarded in England until 1752, when Parliament adopted the New Style, by ordering the 3d of September to be called the 14th, adding eleven days to the reckoning,—or shortening that year by that amount.

Why eleven days? Because the English kept leap year in 1700, while those who followed the Gregorian Calendar, or New Style, omitted it. The Russians still follow the Old Style; and the difference between their dates and ours, is now twelve days, because they made leap year of 1800, and the Gregorians did not.

With so full an explanation, we can now easily settle the question, whether we shall call the 11th of December, Old Style, the 21st or 22d, New Style. Remember that the Gregorian, or New Style, retains the leap year in every 400th,—and so of course in 1600.

Now, then, from 1682, when the New Style was ordained by the Pope, by making the ten days' difference, to 1620, when the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth, no further difference had accumulated, and there was but ten days' difference of reckoning between Pilgrim and Pope, at that time. But the Pilgrim in 1700 kept his leap year and the Pope did not; so that when in 1752, Parliament ordered the adoption of the Pope's style, Parliament and Pilgrim alike were eleven days behind Pope Gregory, and had to add that amount to bring them together. Had we adopted the New Style in 1699 instead of 1752, we should celebrate the 21st. Now we must celebrate the 22d, as the day in New Style corresponding to the 11th in Old Style.

Hence it will be seen that our late Thanksgiving, 21st November, did not correspond to the date of "the signing" on board the May Flower, 11th

Old Style, by one day. We should have celebrated that day on Friday, the 22d. Sabbath, the 22d of this month, is the New Style anniversary of the "Landing." But Saturday, the 21st, is of course the only day appropriate for the school celebrations which we suggested at the commencement of this article.

One other point. If any persons were anxious to celebrate the anniversary of the Landing corresponding as nearly as possible to that of the "Forefathers," in absolute time, they must take the date of that event, Old Style, December 11th, and add the two days' error which would have accrued in the two hundred and forty years since elapsed, had the Old Style continued in use. On this principle, we should observe, not the 22d, but the 13th of December.—*Maine Teacher*.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF ROXBURY.—From the report of the School Committee of Roxbury for the year 1861, we gather the following interesting facts:

The whole number of teachers is 84.

The whole number of pupils belonging to all the schools is 4162.

The cost of maintaining the public schools for the current year is \$50,409.02, or \$12.11 per scholar.

The number of scholars belonging to the High School is 106, under the charge of three teachers.

The cost of maintaining the High School the present year is \$5,640, or \$53.20 per scholar.

There are five Grammar schools in the city, the same as last year. The whole number of pupils belonging to the Grammar Schools is 1669, making an average to each division of 46 pupils.

The cost of maintaining these schools the current year is \$25,201.76, or \$15.10 per scholar.

The number of Primary Schools is 43. The number of pupils belonging to these schools is 2387, making an average to each school of 56 pupils.

The cost of maintaining the Primary Schools the present year is \$19,667.26, or \$8.20 per scholar.

The whole number of persons in the city last May between 5 and 15 years of age, was 5349.

In the Vermont Supreme Court it was decided that though a schoolmaster has in general no right to punish a pupil for misconduct committed after the dismissal of school for the day, and the return of the pupil to his home, yet he may, on the pupil's return to school, punish him for any misbehaviour, though committed out of school, which has a direct and immediate tendency to injure the school, and subvert the master's authority. The rights of teachers in punishing pupils, and the limitations to those rights, are clearly set forth in the opinion of the Court.

Scientific Progress Made in Europe During the Year.

In Colburn's New Monthly Magazine we find a long and interesting article on the Scientific Progress made in Europe during the year, from which we condense the following:

GEOGRAPHY.

The principal geographical progress has been made in Africa. For some years a prize of \$1,650 has been proffered, in part by the French government, to the traveller who shall have first proceeded from the colony of Senegal on the Atlantic to Algeria, or in the opposite direction, passing by Timbuctoo. No explorer has, however, yet been able to secure the prize, on account of the hostile character of the natives. Capt. Vincent has made the trip, only keeping close to the coast. He reports the existence of hilly inhabited regions, with water, palm groves and excellent pasturage, in the country south of Morocco. A little north of the Senegal is the region of the gum-producing acacias. Valuable fisheries are found near the Arguin, where the Medusa perished. The locality is dangerously infected with sharks, which the Moors fight hand to mouth. The Governor of Senegal says the fishing banks might become more valuable than those of Newfoundland.

In the fastnesses of a table land, called Diris, reside a plundering tribe, the Aulad Delim. Capt. Vincent had much difficulty in escaping from them, after a strict detention of twenty-seven days. He reports the women to be handsome. The country thereabouts contains many mines of salt, and produces in places fine crops of grain. It is watered by no rivers, but numerous wells exist. On account of these productions he favors the opening of communications through that country in preference to Timbuctoo.

Some additional information respecting the Amoor country, in Northern Asia, has come to hand, in a volume published by M. Maack. He relates the existence and habits of a Mongolian race, termed Managrians, who live on the Upper Amoor. They acknowledge fealty to China, but are also in a sort of subjection to the Mantchou Tartars, and (latterly) to the Russians. In form they are tall, robust and well made. They have no domestic animals, save dogs, and a small variety of the horse, subsisting chiefly by hunting and fishing. In the chase they poison their arrows with putrified grease, which gives the flesh a very disagreeable taint. An ugly idol obtrudes its image in every hut; and

the priests are endowed with the usual supernatural influences. They never tell their names to a stranger, or those of their friends. Polygamy is tolerated. A peculiar nervous disease, signifying "alone," is spoken of, the sufferer under which imitates everything he has seen done before him.

In the volcanic district of Syria, known as the Hauran (anc. Bashan,) Mr. Wetzstein, the Prussian Consul at Damascus, has discovered whole plains covered with worn pebbles of basalt, upon which are carved camels, horses and date trees, with lines of an inscription in an unknown character, but resembling the old Phœnician.

At last we are within a step of the discovery of the source of the Nile. In a former notice of explorations in Eastern Africa, we expressed the opinion that the "mystery of mysteries" would be found in Lake Nyanza, discovered by Capt. Speke. This sheet of water is doubtless larger than Lake Erie or Ontario, if not both. Two French travelers have followed the Nile from Egypt, while Messrs. Speke and Grant, (English) have again set out for Nyanza from the Indian Ocean. A letter from the former reports them to have arrived at the fourth degree of the North latitude, where the River was observed to rise and fall with great regularity, indicating that its origin was in some great regulating reservoir. The lake is crossed by the equator. The traveler expected to reach it before Speke and Grant, of whom nothing has recently been heard. By the way, a recently announced discovery of the sources of the White Nile has been contradicted by a French Missionary. Another party write that in the summer of 1860, they proceeded up that River as far as Gondokoro in a steamer. The problem of two or three thousand years is evidently near its solution.

ASTRONOMY AND METEOROLOGY.

Mr. Park Harrison reports the results of forty-three years' observations, made at Greenwich Observatory, with the thermometer. These confirm an opinion expressed by Herschell and Arago, and found to exist in Peru by Humboldt, that the amount of rain was greater at or near the time of her change than at full moon. Mr. Harrison's observations go to show that there is a nearly constant rise of temperature from the new to the full moon, and *vice versa* at the opposite period. At this rate it would seem that she reflects heat as well as light.

M. Herve Mangon has lately invented a pluviometer, indicating the slightest as well as the

heaviest fall of rain, the drops falling upon paper dipped in a solution of sulphate of iron and rubbed over with a very fine powdered gall and gum. Rain is thus manufactured into ink. By an ingenious contrivance the paper is made to revolve once in twenty-four hours, thus recording the accounts made daily. Among other inventions we notice one by M. Liats, for the application of photography to the determination of terrestrial longitudes. M. Renon has propounded the doctrine that hard winters come in groups of five or six in round terms of forty-one years—a period which corresponds precisely to the epoch when the solar spots reappear in the same position at the same season of the year.

By means of some recent discoveries made in the use of the prism by Fraunhofer, Brewster and Bunsen, Kirchhof has announced that the solar atmosphere contains the very same metals in a gaseous condition, as does that enveloping our own globe. Recent researches by the same instrument go to confirm the old doctrine that throughout the whole universe there is diffused an ethereal medium which chemists cannot touch, and that the heat which we feel is communicated by motions of this body. It is thus shown that common flame is exactly analogous to the heat of the sun.

M. Babinet, a Parisian, had earned a reputation somewhat resembling that enjoyed by the Brooklyn Seer Meriam. But a short time since he announced a sudden rise in the Seine's tides, which made its appearance on the day, (Oct. 6,) when a wave twelve feet high rolled in upon the shore near Rouen. He has since predicted another which is to be visible at London between the next 17th of March and the 26th of April.

EDUCATION IN INDIA.—Sir George Clark, the Governor of Bombay, has issued a minute on the education report of Mr. Howard for 1859-60. His Excellency does not agree with the report of Mr. Howard, that the English schools have been "starved to benefit the vernacular," as they receive a sum of 155,389 rupees out of the total grant of 372,440 rupees. The number of schools in Bombay, chiefly vernacular, increased from 291, in 1855, to 761, in 1860; and the number of pupils in the same period, from 2,681 to 44,166. In Bengal the number of schools, chiefly English, increased from 147, in 1855, to 692, in 1860, and the scholars numbered, in 1855, 12,865, to 40,366, in 1860. This progress, which has been equally rapid in other provinces, is very remarkable when it is remembered that a check was placed on the expenditure on the outbreak in 1857.—*Journal of Education for U. C.*

Speeches at the Inauguration of the Liverpool School of Science.

PROGRESS OF SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE.

At the recent inauguration of the Liverpool School of Science, Earl Granville remarked as follows:

"No one, educated as I believe those before me have been, can be aware how weak an animal man is, left entirely to himself, and how one of his superiorities in reality over the rest of the animal creation, is an infinity of wants, which the reasoning powers which Divine Providence has bestowed upon him have given him the means to such an extraordinary degree to meet. We are so accustomed to some of the most beautiful inventions, that from day to day we are hardly aware of what wonder there is in the discovery of means so simple and so perfect to contribute to our comfort, to our convenience, and to our happiness.

"Some of the simplest inventions of science, which we almost believed had existed from the beginning of the world, history tells us are not so old. Even among the enlightened Greeks there is no knowledge that they possessed an acquaintance with so simple a machine as a pump. Then, with regard to the motion conveyed by wind, it is believed to have been at a very much later date that mankind became possessed of such knowledge as that. I saw it quoted the other day, of which I was not aware before, that it was only in the reign of Queen Elizabeth that an Ambassador, travelling on the Continent, reported as an extraordinary invention, that a saw should be moved by any other motive power than by the human hand. We are now arrived at that perfection of aptitude for invention in the application of science to art, that one of our real deficiencies is that when we are not sufficiently acquainted with science—and I, for one, feel deplorably the want of enjoyment, and the humiliation of not having sufficient knowledge, of that character—some of the grandest things that surround us, which are taken as a matter of course, we are really unable to explain ourselves. Some of our scientific men have reported the progress that is making in Germany, in France, and in other European countries, in the pursuits of science. I am happy to say, that during the last ten years, in consequence of that awakened feeling in this country, I believe the general dissemination of science has made great progress. Bodies calculated to advance science have taken it in hand. The London University, with which

I am humbly connected, has instituted degrees in science open to the whole nation, of whatever class they may be, which I cannot but believe will further greatly instruction in that matter. I am not sure my right honorable friend, the member for the old and distinguished University of Oxford, will be able to say that that University has yet thought fit to adopt the same course as ourselves with regard to purely scientific degrees; but I know he will back me up in saying, that by their local examinations, called "middle class examinations," by the introduction of scientific examinations, they have contributed greatly to that result. I do not wish to talk too much of what the Government has done. In the first place, I think they are limited, and properly limited, to what they can do. In the second place, turning to my right honorable friend, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, I feel the remembrance of the man in the play, who, complaining of his lodgings being always filled with smoke, and saying he had some thought of complaining to his landlord of the intolerable nuisance, stopped himself by the reflection that, perhaps, it might give his landlord the idea of raising his rent.

"Now, I believe that the exertions for the development of science and art have been most useful in that particular thing which I think it is most desirable we should do in the diffusion of sound scientific instruction to the greater number in this country. Ten years ago the science schools could not find a master capable of teaching science in a manner which would convey it in the most ready and facile manner to the pupils that it is desirable to instruct them in; and yet at this moment, I believe, the only difficulty of the committee promoting this valuable institution, will be to select the one most fit and best qualified for the school. The system of rewards—rewards given at the cost of the State, to reward those who prove themselves efficient in science—have brought forward an extent of candidates which I certainly did not expect; and, though of the number of candidates many have entirely failed, yet their efforts have given me the greatest possible satisfaction, as tending in every possible way, not only to increase the happiness of those individuals, making them better citizens, better countrymen of ours, and I will add, better Christians, to whatever denomination they may belong, but also adding enormously to the chances of advancing the progress and the prosperity of the *of the great nation to which we belong.*"

PROGRESS OF NATURAL AND PHYSICAL SCIENCE.

At the same inauguration, Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone said:

"Well, now, gentlemen, if we take the case of chemistry, look at what chemistry has done within the last twenty years. In a period of trial and of crisis for the agriculture of this country it has been one of the main agents which has brought the agriculture of this country through that period of trial and of crisis—not only without damage, but with an immense augmentation of confidence, of strength, and of utility, both to those who practice it and to the community at large. Why, look now again, those of us who are old enough to recollect. I now turn from the sphere of utility to the sphere of beauty. Let us look at the patterns we see in shops. What is the difference? We see these patterns now—how they have been multiplied in number, how they have been increased in beauty. That is owing to the progress of the science of chemistry giving us, from year to year, an augmented command over the whole region of nature, of which we seem, indeed, to know much more as compared with those who have gone before us, but of which it is possible we know little indeed as compared with what those may know who are yet to come. Take, again, the science of geology. There is nothing more characteristic of England—nothing more conducive to its greatness—than the mining industry of the country. But how vastly has the mining industry of the country been promoted and its difficult operations been facilitated by the progress of geological science. Why, there are parts of this country which were mined for coal long ago, and within no great distance of Liverpool; but in the state to which geology had then attained, and in the state to which mechanics had then attained, the enterprising men who conducted those operations could as it were but scratch the surface of the ground, and obtain such portions of coal measures as lay ready to hand under the most favorable circumstances. And it is many of those portions of the country, once as it was thought exhausted and abandoned, at a period when scientific knowledge had not so far advanced, that are now being subjected to renewed exploration; not for the mere gathering of relics, but, on the contrary, in all likelihood for the conducting of much greater operations than those which were conducted by others who thought they had the virgin ground submitted to their hands. Take again, the famous case of the dis-

covery of gold. I am not one of those who think, as I confess I do believe a great many people still think, even among ourselves, that a pound's worth of gold is much more valuable than a pound's worth of something else; but the discovery of gold has been a most remarkable addition to the wealth of mankind during the period in which we live. But it was the prophetic eye of Sir Roderick Murchison, not a man of business, not a man engaged in commerce, but a man who had devoted himself to science, that indicated the circumstances, and even the region, under which it was to be expected that the discovery of gold should take place. It may be asked, what is the use of the science of natural history? It appears to me that its moral uses are almost infinite; but I will venture to detain you for one moment upon its material uses. Nay, I will venture to take only one of those material uses—I mean this, the use of suggesting to the mind of man that he should copy the finished and exquisite yet simple as well as beautiful, processes by which the Author of nature in the works of nature has attained his ends. Now, it is not at all difficult—if you will permit me to show it, nor need I detain you long—it is not at all difficult to point out what I think are striking instances of this truth—that man in all periods has derived his most valuable inventions from the observation of nature."

ORIGIN OF SOME VALUABLE INVENTIONS.

"I believe there was a time when it was desired, for an important purpose connected with the population on the banks of the Clyde, to introduce pipes of a particular description under that river. The man who solved that difficulty, I believe, was no less a man than Mr. Watt. And how did he solve that difficulty? Why, it is upon record that he solved that difficulty by learning how to construct the pipe to get water under the Clyde, from observing the construction of the shell of a lobster. Well, now, ladies and gentlemen, we often hear of the part which is performed by lobsters on certain occasions, chiefly festive and convivial occasions. I must say, as far as I know, we often hear of mischief resulting from a too free observation of lobsters upon those occasions. But Mr. Watt observed his lobster to some purpose, and he learnt from the construction of its shell a great mechanical secret, which he applied to the solution of an important problem for the comfort and well-being of his fellow-citizens. Sir Isambard Brunel, in placing the *Thames Tunnel*, took

his lesson from a very insignificant personage, and yet a personage wise enough to teach him more than he had known before—I mean that personage whom we know by the name of the earth-worm, for it was the manner in which he, I believe, bores the earth that suggested to Brunel the mode of making that very remarkable work, the *Thames Tunnel*, with which his name is associated. Take, again, the case of Mr. Stephenson. I believe Mr. Stephenson was content to learn from the bone whatever he did learn with respect to the construction of the tubes with which his name is connected. But there is another name which I hope will always enjoy a high place in the history of British art; and I am glad to quote it, because it is eminently connected with what I may call the loving observance of nature—I mean the name of Wedgwood; and I don't believe a greater name is to be found in the history of art in this country. Wedgwood was one of those who had begun, as we may say, from nothing; and I trust there are many that are now beginning from nothing; that there are some possibly in this hall that are making their commencement from nothing, but yet that are destined to leave a name honorable in the annals of their country. You all know that the industry and skill of Wedgwood were directed to applying those clays and earthen materials, which in this country abound, to the formation of pottery and porcelain. Well, now, it is recorded in that most valuable work of Mr. Smiles—perhaps as valuable as his *Life of Stephenson*—which is designated *Self Help*, as one of the earliest of the stages of Wedgwood's operations, that while he was still a mere laborer and hardly of full age, he used to make earthenware knife-handles in imitation of agate and tortoise-shell, and table plates in imitation of lemons, and vessels to hold pickles in imitation of leaves and like articles. And I do not believe there is one of those things that proceeded from the hands of Wedgwood, that is not, at this moment, worth, in any shape where it may be exhibited for view, six or eight times the price which Wedgwood himself put upon it. All I can say is, that I saw to-day, in a shop in this town, two little black cups which Wedgwood would have put up at 4s. or 5s., and the price asked for them—which was, no doubt, a moderate price, and the dealer had a right to ask it; but the price asked was £2 10s."

A native of Africa, who visited England a few years ago, when asked what ice was, said, "Him be water fast asleep." An ice nap, that,

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. P. Cady, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster. A Peep into the Dook—No. 4.

INSTEAD of making the dangerous attempt of passing the bridge, we will turn our boat to the right toward a small, dilapidated and partially sunken wharf just below. We will pass in, a little above, between it and the bridge, and allow the current to bear us along, sidewise, until we gain a position directly over the submerged portion, where the water is so shallow as to furnish a good opportunity for observation. Now a turn or two of our boat rope around that projecting stone in front, and we are ready. Our first glance catches a scene of rare beauty. What a blending of colors in the unique garden plat upon which we gaze! The conservatories of a millionaire cannot surpass it. Green and crimson and lilac, soft and delicate shadings of brown and pink and purple, investing the tresses of feathery moss, gracefully waving over their stony bed, furnish a scene fit for a fairy's home. And were we disposed to be romantic, we might not seek for fairy forms in vain. Let us catch that little tuft that looks so soft and feathery just at an arm's length below. Transfer it to this pail of clear water. Now it expands and reveals its structure. It is like festoonry of delicately tinted beads strung upon threads of gossamer. "But where are the fairies?" As if fairies could become tangible to the dull eye of sense, unaided. Preposterous! Go where the keenest edge of human vision is rendered intense by a hundred thousand fold, and you shall find them clustering upon every microscopic spray, numerous as the responses upon the leaves in the Sybil's cave. You shall see them clad in gold, and sailing in little wizzard boats of almost ethereal delicacy of texture, and of varying form and size. Such will prove the magic revelations of microscopic power.

But leaving this rich display of vegetable beauty, which "*ocean gardens*" only can unfold, to be gathered and embalmed by the fairy fingers of "the fair," we will take from its bed the stone on which grew the feathery tuft. We shall probably find upon it a score of specimens of animal life visible to the unaided eye. Some are millipeds of different colors, and having their backs covered with polygonal plates so jointed as to appear like a coat of mail. Of course there will be a supply of small snails, also two or three varieties of little crustaceans of a shape somewhat akin to that of the shrimp. On one side we shall probably discover a group of serpulæ carefully retracted into their limestone cornucopias. Were we sufficiently skillful we should also be likely to detect corallines and sponges, for these also manifest themselves in the

waters of the Narraganset. One variety of sponge was pointed out to me several years ago, under the name of "red coral." It is sometimes gathered and dried to serve as an ornament to shell pictures or to fancy picture-frames. I may excite a smile by my simplicity, when I confess that I did not ascertain its true character until the last summer, when I found that it was discoloring the water in which I was keeping a specimen for observation, and that I could wholly remove the coloring matter, which was of a gelatinous nature, by careful manipulation, and that the remaining framework consisted of a delicate sponge of a character too obvious to be mistaken. Then, by examining a live specimen with the microscope, the spiny processes surrounding the interstices, and the currents of water set in motion by its animal activity, were plainly visible.

But we have not finished the examination of our stone. On looking again, and upon the lower edge, as it rested in the water, we notice some semi-conical, rounded, jelly-like masses, having, mostly, some shade of flesh color. Examining them more narrowly we discover a circular opening in the centre, and within this opening the extremities of several filaments. These little masses are what, several years ago, were popularly denominated "Animal Flowers." They are specimens of the Actinia, which are among the most curious objects furnished for our observation by the waters of the ocean. They are objects of special interest in an aquarium, where their nature and habits can be studied to the best advantage. A score of them, which I have kept in the glass jar to which I have previously alluded, have proved a fruitful source of entertainment. I began my acquaintance with them near the close of the last summer, under the tuition of an excellent friend, whose well-earned reputation would scarcely be augmented by the mention of his name in this connection. He first showed me *where* and *how* to look for them; which, in fact, are the two most indispensable things to one who is searching for the beginnings of knowledge. These are the two things never to be lost sight of by the teacher and whether my friend has been made specially to feel the force of this truth from the position he maintains as teacher of teachers, or has come to practice it instinctively, neither is its importance less, nor the power of working successfully in it light less valuable. Previous to this time I had seen but a single specimen, and this one by no means under the circumstances most favorable for observation. I now succeeded in capturing four the largest of which was nearly three-quarters of an inch in diameter, and furnished with a double row of tentacula, which, when expanded, took a most precisely the form of the May pink. The form of the others was less characteristic, and would compare equally well with that of a daisy, a sunflower, or any other flower of similar shape.

But as there may be other novices who may be disposed to experiment with these curious creatures, it may not be amiss to present, somewhat in detail, a few results of my own experience; though I can myself scarcely yet claim to be anything more than a novice. In the first place, I have, as yet, succeeded best in finding them, where the tide runs with considerable force, attached to the surface of stones, near the lower edges, or underneath when they can find there sufficient space. They obviously seek these situations to avoid the intensity of direct light, and for the same reason take shelter beneath tufts of sea-weed. When placed in an aquarium, although they will at first attach themselves to the upper surface of a stone, or to the side of the glass, I have found that they will gradually change their place until they secure a position sheltered from strong light. It requires some care to detach them, forcibly, from their place; for although they are able to change their place gradually, at will, yet they adhere with such tenacity that they allow themselves to be torn piecemeal rather than quit their hold. The mode which I first adopted to detach them is that which, on the whole, I still prefer. I remove them with a knife by cutting carefully in the same manner as though they were attached to a surface of wood, and I were endeavoring to remove them by taking a thin shaving beneath them. They may be removed by cleaving off a portion of the stone to which they are attached, with a chisel, but I do not always succeed in removing them in this way without injury; and, as frequently in other cases, the injury has often occurred where I desired particularly to avoid it. The use of the knife, though it requires a little patience, if careful is also safe. When captured they may be kept any reasonable length of time if not injudiciously exposed, and the water in which they are placed is kept pure.

Their tenacity of life and the power of reproduction which they possess are wonderful. So great is the latter that a mere fragment, left behind in removing them from their place of attachment, is capable of developing into a perfect animal. I observed this process going on where I had removed a specimen, before having any knowledge of the fact from any other source. I have since read an article in which this power is discussed and recognized as a means of reproduction by what is called "spontaneous division." The writer states that, "On the 12th of July he cut asunder an actinia toward the base. It continued adhering to the side of the vessel containing it, and was in motion during several days. Then, having detached itself, it fixed in another place, where it remained stationary. On the 27th it began again to move, and preserved some motion until the end of August, when it became soft and fetid, and apparently dead. Fresh sea water was supplied, however, and in November its motion was perceptibly resumed. On the 25th, it climbed to the top of

the vessel: the rudiments of new tentacula were then visible. This animal perished by accident after having survived the operation fourteen months."

"Another actinia was cut asunder on the 9th of November. The basis immediately contracted and remained in the same state until the 13th of January, when it shifted its position. So early as the 15th, two rows of new tentacula were visible, and the animal was in motion. It then fed on muscles, and the reproduced parts were soon nearly as large as those cut off. The upper portion seized and swallowed part of a muscle, after the operation, which passed through and through the opening for want of a base."

"On the 11th of July, the upper part of an actinia was cut off; new limbs began to shoot out on the 21st, and two rows of them were seen on the 25th. The coloring of the tentacula was faintly renewed on the 11th of August, and soon afterward it would scarcely be known that an operation had been performed." "In another victim, cut asunder on the 7th of August, the third row of tentacula was visible on the 9th of September, and a fourth on the 19th." "On the 3d of October it began to eat, and soon after became a perfect animal."

The same author states that, in another instance, a new set of tentacula sprang from the lower edge of the amputated portion, thus producing a sort of double actinia, which fed at both ends.

In their normal condition, as these animals have but a single opening, they are obliged to reject the indigestible portions of whatever they swallow through the same aperture by which it entered. They eat voraciously, and swallow, with little apparent discrimination, whatever comes in contact with their tentacula. When they are fully expanded and active it is interesting to observe their exquisite delicacy of touch. If any substance touches their tentacula ever so lightly they immediately attempt to bring it fully within the grasp of their thousand arms, and if it is not unreasonably large, within a few minutes it disappears in *immensum barathrum*. Were it not for the

"Prima hominis facies, et pulchro pectore virgo,"

we could easily understand Virgil's Sicilian monster by considering it a gigantic actinia. However, some discretion is necessary in feeding these creatures, as they loosen their girdle, and continue to eat like a famished Indian; and then, at their leisure, disgorge their superfluous food to putrify, and poison the water in which they are kept. I have sometimes allowed them to fill themselves as though they had become transformed into a veritable beggar's sack, and in the morning found them lank and lean as a famished hound, while all around them were scattered the substantial which constituted their banquet of the previous night. It is better to feed them sparingly except for the

purpose of amusement; in fact they can subsist for a long time with no food except what they take from the water.

In view of the exquisite sense of touch possessed by these creatures, and the slight injury which they sustain from laceration and dismemberment, it would seem obvious, as in the case of insects and all the lower orders of animal life, that there is no necessary connection between exquisiteness of touch and capacity for suffering. They are said to endure a degree of cold below the freezing point with impunity, although they are incapable of enduring any degree of heat above 144°. Intense light with a moderate degree of heat seems highly injurious to them. A fine specimen that I was keeping temporarily in a wash-bowl suddenly lost the whole of its tentacula from exposure to the sunlight, owing to an accidental neglect of closing the window shutter. Another double set of tentacula subsequently appeared, but finally, after the lapse of several weeks, the animal perished from a similar exposure in a glass jar.

It is very amusing to observe the changes of form these creatures can assume. Now they will give the appearance of a flower with a short, stout stem. After a time this stem will become extended to several times its former length: then the stem will remain like a delicate, semi-transparent membranous sack without any apparent tentacula. At another time the body of the creature will be contracted at some point as if constricted by a cord, and at still another, it will have assumed the appearance of a rounded mass of jelly adhering to the place of its attachment.

I have, as yet, found no actinia of but moderate size—less than an inch in diameter—and none possessed of brilliant colors. Varieties of great beauty and large size are described by authors who have written upon the subject. Very fine specimens are said to be found on the shores of Great Britain, some of which have a diameter of several inches. If the waters of Narragansett furnish specimens of equal interest, I hope my subsequent investigations will reveal the pleasant fact.

I. F. C.

FLOWERS.—Why does not everybody have a geranium, a rose, or some other flower in the window? It is very cheap, next to nothing if you raise it from seed or slip, and is a beauty and a companion. As charming Leigh Hunt says, it sweetens the air, rejoices the eye, links you with nature and innocence, and is something to love you in return; it cannot hate you, it cannot utter a hateful word, even for neglecting it, for though it is all beauty, it has no vanity; and living, as it does, purely to do you good and afford you pleasure, how can you neglect it?

WHAT the Christian world wants is more love. *Love rules his kingdom without sword.*

Philology.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to HENRY CLARK, Pawtucket, R. I.

LITERARY men or lovers of books are invited to contribute to this department. The contributor will be expected to communicate his name and address to the editor of this department, as above, which need not be published unless at the wish of the contributor. Writers are requested to confine their essays within the usual bounds assigned to the department—two printed pages. It will not be convenient to return manuscript.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Use of the Comma.

THERE are some general principles concerning the uses of the comma that may be briefly stated. No accomplished writer, however, should be content with aught less than a thorough knowledge of all the essential rules for its employment.

(a) The comma is used to expose clauses and phrases,* indicating the grammatical structure of a sentence.

(b) It indicates grammatical ellipses; particularly of conjunctions and verbs.

(c) It sometimes, though rarely, shows the place for a stop to be made by the reader when reading aloud, and may be inserted to prevent ambiguity.

These principles admit of illustration from the examples cited in a work on punctuation which deserves general notice. [Wilson's Treatise on Punctuation] Here follow examples of punctuation in case of the division of a proposition into phrases and clauses:

(a) Homer, the great poet of antiquity, is said have been blind.

Prudence, as well as courage, is necessary to overcome obstacles.

Books, regarded merely as a gratification, are worth more than all the luxuries on earth.

Awkward in his person, James was ill qualified to command respect.

Punctuality is, no doubt, a quality of high importance. Wealth is of no real use, except it be well employed. All know that as virtue is its own reward, so vice is its own punishment.

Speak as you mean, do as you profess, and perform what you promise.

There is much in the proverb, "Without pains, no gains."

On scanning carefully the treatise from which we have just quoted, it has seemed to me that some of the examples Wilson gives under certain rules may be grouped with others, and so I have, out of design, selected one example under each rule.

* A single word used as a direct address is separated from the sentence by commas, as, "Idle time, John, the most ruinous thing in the world." So with a single word used as an adverb: "I proceed, thereby, to point out the proper state of our temper."

pointing clauses or phrases, without stating specifically what kind of phrase or clause is cited, that I may show the application of the general principle I have first named.

For one who would gain a general knowledge of the use of the comma, this general statement will be at first more satisfactory than numerous and more specific rules.

I shall now quote three instances where the comma supplies grammatical ellipses; particularly of the conjunction and of the verb. The two first of them illustrate the ellipses of a conjunction; the last of a verb:

(b) Can flattery soothe the dull, cold ear of death? Industry, honesty,† and temperance are essential to happiness.

The wise man considers what he wants; the fool, what he abhors in.

To supply the ellipses, place *and* after "dull" in the first sentence and after "industry," in the second sentence; and the verb, *considers* in the place of the comma in the third sentence, removing the point in each case.

I have next to show the rhetorical use of this point and its office in preventing ambiguity. In the first of the three cases the comma is almost purely rhetorical in force, showing the point at which the voice of a reader should briefly pause. In the second, the omission of the mark would occasion, perhaps, a slight ambiguity; while in the third, rhetorical and grammatical correctness are both confirmed by the insertion of a comma.

(c) These were small states, in which every man felt himself to be important.

To the wise and good, old age presents a scene of tranquil enjoyment.

He applied for that agency, without a recommendation.

The sentences I have chosen were selected quite at random, and of course cannot be considered complete tests of the full application of Wilson's rules. They are, at most, only specimens in each of the three branches under examination, and serve to show how nearly alike it is possible for sentences to be that group themselves out of many rules into these few general classes. Each sentence quoted under each of my topics is an illustration of a special rule in the Treatise. Whether all the rules can be reduced to three it is not my purpose now to inquire.

Phrases and clauses constitute the commonest grammatical divisions of a sentence. To separate a sentence into these divisions is, then, an important requisite to a correct understanding of a loose-

† Mr. Wilson uses a comma before "and," as in this case. There is difference of opinion among writers as to its proper use in such a case. The judgment of the writer of this paper inclines to its omission.

ly written paragraph. This, in general, is the office of the comma. Cases arise, however, when these are so numerous, owing to the composite nature of some sentences, that a secondary class of grouping is necessary, answering somewhat in kind, to the secondary accent of long words. For this purpose the semicolon is used; but it is not ordinarily required. Some cases occur, too, where the phrase or clause is so brief that the printed sentence would appear cumbrous were it pointed strictly according to these general principles. Then the comma, belonging at the beginning or at both sides of the clause or phrase, is often omitted; *e. g.*:

Burke and Paine were incarnations of the spirit whose conflict has for ages divided the world.

Here the phrase, "for ages," from its brevity, deserves to be enclosed between no special marks of punctuation.

The reader should note that no punctuation is admissible between the parts of speech so closely connected by rhetorical relation as the subject and predicate; the adjective and substantive; the relative when near its antecedent and the antecedent.

When the writer is liable to be misunderstood, it is desirable for him to insert a comma when he can thus prevent misapprehension; and it often occurs that men accustomed to the delivery of written discourses fall, by force of habit, into the way of punctuating their sentences as they would have them to be read. Either of these privileges must of necessity be allowed, but both of them fall without the province of punctuation as a science. Perhaps pupils in common schools may be misled by the faulty punctuation of elocutionists in this respect, particularly in first books on reading. Much discretion should therefore be employed in appointing the place for commas as marks in vocal reading.

Poets, by that privilege known as poetic license, have been allowed to punctuate their poems according to their own taste, since the effect of poetry depends largely on the manner in which it is read. As a prominent design in the punctuation of poetry is to secure melody, a free punctuation may legitimately be used.

It is far better to use no commas at all than, depending mainly upon them, to suffer one's thoughts to be radically or ridiculously changed by the misplacement of a type or the carelessness of a hasty reader. Mr. Wilson cites an odd case of such a mistake in a notice read in church, which was written:—"A sailor going to sea, his wife desires the prayers of the congregation for his safety." But it was read, doubtless to the great amazement of the people, as if the comma had been removed two words ahead of its place.

The character of cotemporary literature would be elevated were writers to become better acquaint-

ed with the laws of punctuation; especially with those concerning the comma. A neatly and correctly punctuated book-page not only appears better but is more readily understood than a page bristling with ill-placed punctuation marks, appearing, to one who notices such matters, like a drawing well executed, but defaced by random strokes from an unskillful hand.

For the Schoolmaster.
School Songs.

WITHIN a year or two, song books for the use of schools have been greatly multiplied. Thus there has been instituted an exceedingly varied style of school music, unworthy a definite name, consisting often of selections from popular sheet music, interspersed with the easier pieces from glee books; sometimes of reprints of German songs accompanied by English paraphrases and again of the silliest melodies affixed to words which none but a little child in his simplicity would consent to sing. There is very little in all this miscellaneous material that is fitted to produce a right influence upon children; little that touches and elevates the heart of a child and instructs him after the kindly manner of Nature in the love and condescension of his Heavenly Father.

Every one of my readers knows that simplicity of style without puerility is a powerful instrument in accomplishing good, and that without it instruction to children would prove quite of no effect. Joining, then, the elements of true simplicity to a genuine religious spirit expressed in kindly words, school songs might be made to exert a lasting influence on minds easily impressed, and to lead them into channels of thought which all their lives they would delight to follow.

The child loves to sing of scenes in nature; of springing flowers on the green banks of rivers beneath the open sky; of the joyous warbling of birds; the expansive beauties of spring; the genial influences of summer; the generosity and bounty of the autumn season; and of winter, with its frosts and snows. Home is a favorite subject of song;—sister and brother, father and mother are delightful words to him when skillfully employed by the song-makers.

And so the range of subjects is not narrow nor their character mean.

Neither are these themes new nor useless. The material is not now at hand for making this an illustrative article; but it could be easily shown that music and words combining simplicity with a pleasing naturalness are not rare among the singing books rather recently laid aside.

It is a suggestive inquiry whether the calm and quiet character of those excellent musical poems has not been succeeded by noisy, demonstrative pieces, rather fitted to awaken the ruder qualities of mind and heart than to instill kindness and gen-

tleness into the sources of thought and Are the showy pieces generally sung at present time destined to an extended existence will they be worthy of a life so real and as those sweeter songs of a former day sounds call up the deeper and calmer emotions of the heart?

For the Schoolmaster.
Synonyms.

Recollect—Remember.

COWPER, writing to Mr. Newton, April upon his studies, makes a very clear distinction between these two words:

"My studies," he says, "are very much of little use, because I have no book what I borrow, and nobody will lend me my own is almost worn out. I read graphia and the Review. If all the readers former had memories like mine, the common that work would in vain have labored to recall great names of past ages from oblivion; I read to-day I forget to-morrow. A boy might say, 'This is rather an advantage; it is always new.' But I beg the by-stander don't: I can recollect, though I cannot recollect and with the book in my hand I recognize passages, which, without the book, I should have thought of more."

QUESTIONS FOR
Written Examination

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

ARITHMETIC.

1. Three times the difference of two equals 2908.679085 divided by .0005, and the sum of the numbers equals 800156908.65 are the numbers?
2. Get the L. C. M. of $6\frac{1}{2}$, $4\frac{1}{2}$, $11\frac{1}{2}$, $3\frac{1}{2}$, 10 .
3. I have a garden 5 rods long and 3 rods wide; how deep must a trench, 6 ft. in diameter, be dug around it, on the outside, that the earth upon the garden shall raise it $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet?
4.
$$\left[\frac{4-9}{8-15} \times \frac{1-0\frac{1}{2}}{.0\frac{1}{2}-00\ 4-5} \right] \div \frac{.008\frac{1}{2}}{1-.016\frac{1}{2}}$$
5. What part of $3\frac{1}{2}$ rods is $7\frac{1}{2}$ sq. yds., $.0012\frac{1}{2}$ sq. in.
6. John can do a piece of work in 2-5 days. William can do it in $\frac{1}{3}$ of a day, and James in 1 day. In what time can the three working together do the work?
7. A cellar is 40 ft in length, 25 feet in width and 7 ft. 9 in. deep; what is the uniform earth that must be taken from the surface to fill the cellar?

the simple interest on \$975.875 for the years the dates of Feb. 13th, 1857, to Dec. 31st, 1861, money being worth 7 1-5 per cent.

Note for \$8740.60, dated March 11th, 1861, payable in 90 days, was discounted at a bank in 1861. The sum received was invested, and the commission of 1 4-5 per cent of the purchase money was deducted, in cotton at 25 cts. per bale, many bales were purchased. each weighing 400 lbs.?

John can do $\frac{1}{3}$ a piece of work in 5 days, James can do the piece in $6\frac{1}{2}$ days, Charles can do it in 4 1-6 days, and Charles in 10 days can do the work. In how many days can all together do it? How much can all workers do in one day?

GRAMMAR.

What are the vowel sounds of *i*?

Write the present and perfect participles of *concur*, *filter*, *rear*, and *reverse*; why do they differ so?

Write the plural of these nouns: *Genus*, *radius*, *index*, *army*, *ox*.

Write the singular of *vortices*, *oases*, *manacles*.

Give examples of the several classes of adjectives.

Give examples of the several classes of prepositions.

Write the passive voice, indicative mode, future tense, third person, plural of the verb: *to write*.

Write a sentence containing a transitive verb and the relative pronoun *that* in the object of the verb.

Correct the errors in the following sentence:

"After a long travel, want, or woe, we changed the form that best we know."

Correct the errors in this sentence, tell why, and parse each word in it:

"John and I what was lying on the table."

Editors' Department.

We would call attention to the advertisement of Hazen & Ellsworth, publishers of a set of

The Progressive Readers are too well known in Rhode Island to need or even to profit from editorial notice, in THE SCHOOLMASTER. These Readers and a live teacher, the art of which is imparted with wonderful facility to the student. There is a marked appropriate selection of the sentiment in the various

The pupil reads them because he finds congeniality in the subject matter. In numbers are not only gems of thought, but also of ingenious rhetorical arrangement of principles, from foundation to capstone, a series of which to be used in the school-room to be appreciated.

THE following contributions have been received in compliance with a resolution passed at a recent meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, held at Carolina Mills, for the relief of the sick and wounded soldiers:

John J. Ladd, Classical Department High School, Providence.....	\$5 55
Wm. A. Mowry, English Department, do..	8 10
Samuel Thurber, Junior Department, do...	5 00
Miss E. B. Barnes, Carpenter Street Primary, Providence.....	1 16
F. B. C. Davis, Public School, Westerly...	55
S. A. Briggs, Public School, E. Greenwich,	3 00
Charles E. Howes, Public School, District No. 9, Westerly.....	42
P. T. Coggs, Public School, Portsmouth	1 25
J. W. Gorton, Public School, Peacedale...	91
H. E. Miner, Public School, Charlestown..	35
Miss I. F. Dixon, Public School, S. Kingstown.....	12
Mr. G. M. Bently, Pub. School, Hopkinton,	40
Miss S. M. Lillibridge, Public School, Richmond.....	16
Mr. A. A. Lillibridge.....do.....do.	22
F. B. Snow, Bridgman School, Providence.	6 13
M. A. Maynard, Dist. No. 2, Burrillville...	25
George W. Spalding, Natick,.....	1 84
Miss Kate Pendleton, No. 11, Watch Hill, Westerly.....	60
F. B. Smith, Valley Falls, Dist. No. 33....	3 75
Second Primary, Elmwood.....	50
H. H. Gorton, Dist. No. 15, Warwick,....	51
Miss E. A. Pierce, Summer Street Intermediate, Providence.....	1 51
W. H. Gifford, Middletown, Dist. No. 3,...	1 25
A. R. Adams, Public School, Centerville...	85
A Primary School, Providence,.....	1 52
W. C. Peckham, No. 11, Burrillville.....	36
Miss S. J. Bates, Primary, No. 11, do.....	36
Miss E. P. Cunliffe, Dist. No. 1, Warwick.	1 00
East District, Warren,.....	23
H. M. Rice, High School, Woonsocket....	75
Perley Verry, Grammar School, do.....	82
Miss A. Peck, Intermediate do...do.....	57
Miss B. J. Brown, Primary do...do.....	38
Miss E. Paine,.....do.....do.....do.....	40
Miss M. R. Brown,.....do.....do.....do.....	35
Miss Lucy Smith,.....do.....do.....do.....	73
N. W. DeMunn, Principal Benefit Street Grammar School, Providence,.....	3 03
Mary W. Armington, Graham Street Intermediate School, Providence,.....	1 12
Mary E. Anthony, Benefit Street Intermediate School, (one room.) Providence,.	50
Lizzie A. Davis and Susan R. Joslyn, Benefit Street Primary School, Providence,	63
J. H. Arnold, Portsmouth, District No. 5..	5 00
William L. Chace, Chepachet.....	2 00

\$64 21

WE will furnish THE SCHOOLMASTER and the *Atlantic Monthly* or *Harpers' Magazine* for the subscription price (\$3.00) of either monthly.

Military Training in our Schools.

We are pleased to notice that this subject is rapidly meeting with the attention which it demands. Gov. Andrews, of Massachusetts, strongly recommends that the present legislature shall make provision by statute for the drill of their youth. Gov. Morgan, of New York, very emphatically calls the attention of the legislative body to the subject. The governors of several other loyal States, either have already or we doubt not will, advocate a military department in all our schools. Gov. Curtin, of Pennsylvania, speaks as follows in relation to it:

"I earnestly recommend to the legislature that provision be made for the military instruction of youth. The appointment of a military instructor in the normal schools would, in a short period, give teachers to the common schools, who would be competent to train the boys in attendance on them. It would, in my opinion, be wise also to provide for the purchase or leasing by the Commonwealth of a building for a military school, and for employing competent instructors at the expense of the State, requiring the pupils to defray the other expenses. No pupil should be admitted to this school without having passed a thorough examination in mathematics, and all fitting subjects of instruction, except the military art proper. I respectfully urge this subject on your early consideration as one of material, perhaps vital importance."

His Excellency Governor Sprague, in his communication to the General Assembly, says:

"My attention has been called to the subject of introducing military exercises and instruction into our common schools. I can perceive no serious objections to such a change, but much that may commend it to your consideration and favor."

Report of the Trustees of the Normal School.

To the Honorable General Assembly:

In compliance with the statute, the Trustees of the Normal School respectfully submit their Second Annual Report.

The term for which Hon. J. J. Reynolds was elected having expired, and declining a reelection, Hon. Charles H. Denison was chosen by your honorable body to fill his place. Your Board, thus constituted, have held their quarterly meetings for business, and visited the school under their supervision each term, as by law required.

The school has continued through the year under the government and instruction of the same principal and assistants as during the year previous. Joshua Kendall, A. M., the principal, has fulfilled the duties of his responsible office to the high satisfaction of the Trustees, and of such as have been associated with the school as patrons or pupils. By his untiring diligence, his amiable and courtly demeanor, winning the confidence and affection of his pupils; by his ability to illustrate and impress the various subjects of daily lectures and remarks upon the apprehension and memory, he has already accomplished among us a work in the cause of education, which, we believe, will be felt throughout the State. Miss Harriet W. Good-

win, the first assistant, has had many years experience in this department, to which, at the commencement, she brought many rare natural and acquired endowments. Her literary and moral influence over the pupils, especially the young ladies, is invaluable. Miss Ellen R. Luther, the second assistant, enjoyed a thorough normal training under the model educator, Mr. Dana P. Colburn, and has imbibed a desirable share of his enthusiasm in the work. Being familiar with the piano, accompanied with a commanding voice, she has exercised the school daily in the pleasing art of vocal music, now so generally introduced into our public schools of every grade.

Thus is your Normal Department furnished with teachers whose united ability to do the work assigned them, we venture to say, is not inferior to that of any school of the same character in New England.

Belonging to the school is a well selected library of 1906 volumes. These books are for the daily use of the scholars, or for reference, or for such general reading as the teachers and more advanced pupils may need. The rooms are furnished with maps and charts of the most modern improvement. A valuable apparatus has recently been obtained for the purpose of giving a more perfect demonstration of the primary practical principles of chemistry, galvanism, and electro-magnetism.

During the past year, sixty-two different persons have been registered as members of the Normal School, and have enjoyed its advantages for one or more terms. A greater number of males has been in attendance the past year, than during any year preceding. It is worthy of note, as indicating the growing interest of the community in the Normal Department, as the source from whence teachers are to be obtained, that applications for male teachers for this winter's schools within our State, have exceeded our means of supply. Indeed, it is manifest to your Board, that such is the growing popularity of these modern institutions in the North-Eastern States, where common schools have attained the greatest perfection, that the time is not far distant when it will become an indispensable qualification in a candidate for the office of a teacher, that he or she has been a member of a Normal School. And why should it not be so?

The business of teaching and governing a public school has already become a profession; commanding greater numbers, and in instances not few, greater salaries than some of the so-called learned professions. And since seminaries are founded specifically for these professions, such as the Law, Theology and Medicine, why are they not equally necessary for the qualification of those in to whose hands the training of the minds and morals of our youth is to be committed during six or eight years of the most important portion of their lives? As it regards the peace of families, the social elevation of the neighborhood, the man-

obedience to law, and reverence for the
r, no office-bearer can claim superiority
acher of our children. Hence the ori-
importance of Normal Schools. We see
ey can be dispensed with in any State
unity where they have been successfully
thout producing a sad retrogression in
it greatly improved system of popular

titution under the patronage of your hon-
y, is comparatively recent in its origin;
e hundred, averaging nearly sixty-three
ave shared in its privileges; most of
y be supposed to be living and active
of the rising generation in some of the
partments of primary instruction.

aware that the General Assembly, under
re of the civil war with which our coun-
afflicted, will find it necessary to con-
rickest economy in their appropriations
rent year, that is compatible with the
of the commonwealth. But we sincere-
at the excising knife, if it be necessary
at all, may not fall upon this essential
r educational system. This Board most
commend this school to your generous
and continued support.

for which Hon. S. G. Arnold and Rev.
ard were elected, will have expired be-
session of May next. It will therefore
on the Assembly to elect, during this
sion, two Trustees to supply the vacan-
board.

owing disbursements have been made
year, viz.:

of the teachers.....	\$2,350 00
's Journal.....	5 00
s of Trustees.....	36 55
oomis.....	32 00

\$2,423 55

f of the Trustees,

THOMAS P. SHEPARD.

CHANGES.—Among our numerous ex-
e have many that deserve a frequent
ur columns. Of these, we now speak of
My's Book. We do not well understand
can dispense with its valuable informa-
never *meagre*, it is never dry, or *driven*
ppointed time by sheer necessity. It
to its ten thousand readers full, like the
rive, from the "wild Thyme bed" lad-
flowing, and therefore *must* go. It is
in its tone, and yet merry in its ring-
rns, designs, crochet work, embroidery,
hion plates, and engravings, we think
uperior on the western side of the At-
u may depend upon what is said about
of a "yoke," or the length of a cloak,
e of a hat. We say, then, let your la-
odey one year and you will dismiss your
r the next, before you do the Lady's
ress L. A. Godey, Philadelphia, Pa.

Our Book Table.

CHAMBERS' ENCYCLOPEDIA. Published by J. B.
Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

We are indebted for the 38th and 39th numbers
of Chambers' Encyclopedia. The more we see of
this masterly work the more we feel its necessity,
and the more we realize the benefit conferred up-
on the American public by its enterprising pub-
lishers. A Rhode Island scholar says:

"I have examined with some care the numbers
of your re-print of Chambers' Encyclopedia. If
a judgment may be formed from these specimens,
I consider it a timely and important addition to
our means for rendering general knowledge accep-
table to the whole community. The articles are
well selected, the knowledge is brought down to
the present time, the plan is very comprehensive,
and the work derives a peculiar value from the
pictorial illustrations with which it is abundantly
supplied. I think it will be found a capital book
for reference in every family."—FRANCIS WAY-
LAND, D. D., LL. D.

THE YOUTH'S COMPANION. Published by Olm-
stead & Co., School street, Boston. Does the lit-
tle son or daughter wish a newspaper of their *own*?
one that shall make the whole homestead glad
when it comes? Then we say, take the *Youth's*
Companion. It is one of the best little papers, if
not *the best*, now published. It is, if we mistake
not, the oldest one in the country of the kind. It
is one of those juvenile papers which *old* as well
as young must love. A juvenile word well said
always gains the maturer attention. In the old
homestead of our youth it has made its visits to
each one respectively of five children, and now it
still cheers the hearts of the lonely pair as its
pages breathe forth sweet and gentle words. Pa-
rents, do you want a gem for your son or daughter,
take the *Companion* to your hearthstone.

THE PULPIT AND THE ROSTRUM. An Elegant
Pamphlet Serial, contains the *best* Sermons,
Lectures, &c. Twelve Numbers, \$1.00, in ad-
vance. Single Number, 10 cents. E. D. Barker,
publisher, 135 Grand street, New York.

We have received the February number of this
serial. It contains the great speech of Wendell
Phillips on the Southern Rebellion. In times like
these we need to preserve the thoughts of our great
men, and by publishing our best lectures in a pam-
phlet form they may be kept. The *ability* of the
publisher, in selecting from the mass of lectures
such as are worthy of preservation, is a sufficient
guarantee to the public.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.—We have received
the February number of this magazine, for which
we always have a hearty welcome ready. In fact,
we do not feel established for the month until we
have seen the *Atlantic*. If there are any of *THE*

SCHOOLMASTER's friends who do not take it we say to them, read the prospectus for 1862. Its writers have always numbered the brightest stars of our literary firmament, but what a galaxy for the new year: Longfellow, Lowell, Emerson, Hawthorne, Holmes, Whittier, Bayard Taylor, Mrs. Stowe, Harriet Martineau, Rose Terry, and a host of others. Who would do without it, when for the trifling price of its subscription, we may not only be admitted into communion with minds like these, but have AGASSIZ for our teacher?

We have received from N. Bangs Williams, 113 Westminster street, *Harpers' Magazine*, which may now be considered one of the institutions of the country. It would seem useless to call the attention of any of our readers to its attractions. It is *the* magazine for the people, and has grown in favor from year to year, until its circulation exceeds that of any other monthly. The opening numbers of the year are unusually interesting, and promise much for those to come. We hope to be remembered in this same way through the new year.

WHAT AN OLD TUTOR SAID.—An old tutor once charged a class in English composition, in all their productions, to "make a point. We think Potter & Hammond "made a point" hard to be beaten when they gave us those flexible pens, than which there are none better in Brother Jonathan's dominions. Don't take our word for it, but *try them*.

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JOHN L. SHOREY, 13 Washington Street, Boston, Mass

The R. I. Schoolmaster.

MARCH, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

NUMBER THREE.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Art of Grammar and its Philosophy.

THE school-boy pronounces grammar "dry." His teacher finds the greatest difficulty in awakening that enthusiasm which is essential to success. The former displays his lack of interest by making unaccountable and unnecessary mistakes, giving to a noun tense, and to a verb case, parsing John as first person feminine, and so on; frequently showing that his mind is not fully concentrated upon the subject of which he is speaking. This is rather saddening to the teacher, and, if faithful, he will often ask himself the question: How can I throw a charm around this study and stir up so much activity in regard to the subject as its importance demands? There is not this indifference in his other classes;—whether they deal with the combinations of arithmetic, the descriptions of geography, or the wonders of natural science. Why this difference? Is it not because, in the one, there are so many technicalities and so little philosophy, while in the others curiosity is gratified, effects are traced to their causes, and many things interesting and valuable are brought to light? In other words, is not grammar taught too much as an art and not enough as a science? Every one knows that, according to our dictionaries, it is both; yet one would hardly infer so from the method sometimes pursued in teaching it. As an art it teaches us, as we know, to write and speak correctly; as a science it shows the origin and changes of words and develops principles which are common to all languages. One illustrates the other, and both are necessary to a proper understanding of the subject. An art must have fixed rules, and hence we find in

grammar-classes a constant tendency to pass through the prescribed routine without much thinking. They perform their exercises like machines. They deal much with abstractions also, and the mind almost always prefers the concrete. A name is a noun, and a noun is a name, and "what's in a name?" Surely little, to many a school-boy. Now, anything that will make words objects of interest, give them personality, *life*, will be of great advantage. Most of them *are* such when rightly considered. The growth of a tree from the germ, or the formation of a crystal from its atoms, is not more curious than the development of many words. There is power in all these which might well be called their life, and the life of the word is the idea that it contains. Vitality implies action, therefore the proper question to be asked in teaching, is: What does this word, phrase or clause do in the sentence before us? The thought that in every well-formed proposition each word has its appropriate office, bears a relation to other parts, and is not there by chance, has constantly to be kept in mind.

Nothing has done more to show this connection and mutual dependence of the different parts of sentences than the study of analysis, and not until this and grammar are united side by side, shall we have the best system for explaining the true philosophy of language. The present mode of "parsing" is frequently quite unreasonable. Phrases and clauses may do the same as words, and in that case should be classified accordingly; yet their real relation is at times quite neglected. To illustrate: In the sentence, A strong wall was built, "strong," of course, is an adjective qualifying "wall." A wall of strength was built. Does "of strength"

describe wall as before, and should we not call it by the same name? Again: A wall, which was strong, was built. Here a sentence, "which was strong," modifies wall and ought to be called an adjective, as in analysis. Indeed, is there any other proper way, if scholars are to understand the "rationale" of parsing? This is not confined to any one element. There is common sense in grammar, as in other studies, and when the scholar sees that all is not arbitrary, but reasonable, he is pleased.

The relations shown by prepositions are too frequently disregarded. Our text-books say that they "connect words and show the relations between them," but they do not pause to tell what these are. Perhaps this is left to the ingenuity of the student. The engine is moved by steam; The house of Johnson; I found him in the house. Here "by," "of," "in," show relations respectively of agency, possession, and place, which ought to be pointed out. The number of relations shown is quite large, and the habit of giving them will awaken thought and add interest to a recitation. Grammar only becomes a delightful study when it examines words as the representatives of ideas, and is regarded as "the logic of speech even as logic is the grammar of reason."

If enthusiasm can be awakened it will become more easy of acquisition, more interesting to both teacher and taught. This, therefore, is an important inquiry:—How can the teacher obtain a love for our native tongue, and how can he arouse a lively activity in the minds of his pupils? Much will, necessarily, depend upon the character of the latter; few, however, are so small, or so little advanced, that they will not exhibit considerable interest, perhaps more than one would imagine, as the philosophy of language is from time to time explained.

Investigations carried on in almost any department of knowledge usually begin with individuals. As the plant, animal and flower is each the representative of classes, so a word is the type of many words. Whilst, however, it bears relation to all, it has an individuality which is frequently quite noteworthy. Dean Trench, in his excellent little work on "The Study of Words," has given a large number whose origin and history have been as interesting as the biography of Gulliver. Such will sometimes occur to us. Surely Herculean would have a new interest to the grammar scholar after he had learned its derivation; Stentorian, from the deep-voiced herald of the Grecian camp, Sten-

tor; Tantalize, from the poor king of Lydia Tantalus, who was condemned to be plunged in water, whilst delicious fruits and cooling draughts might pass before his eyes, touch his lips, but never enter to satisfy his hunger and thirst; Homeric, Jonsonian, Augustan, and many other words of similar character, have really much of romance and not a little history bound up with them. Might not the teacher then, as he deals with these proper adjectives, sometimes profitably allude to their origin? They would then have a charm not possessed before.

It is instructive to observe the changes which attend the introduction of words from one language into another. Sometimes they are taken without any change, as "desideratum," "final," "interregnum"; again, they experience a metamorphosis not unlike that by which the tadpole ceases to be such and becomes a frog, following strict analogy by losing the tail first. The transformations are frequently very slow, yet as they constantly go on, and thus, little by little, is the complicated structure of language strengthened and perfected. "The introduction of a word very often marks an epoch in history"; some great invention or discovery must have a name, some decided change comes over society. Walter Scott gives an illustration in *Ivanhoe*, in the conversation which took place at the tournament between the Saxon nobles Cedric and Athelstane. The latter, when asked if he would not break a lance for the honor of old England, replied that he did not wish, then to join in the "*mole*"; at which the proud Cedric was very wroth to think that he had used a Norman word, but this indicated the beginning of that union between the Saxon and Norman language which was afterwards so happily completed.

How many who are studying English grammar ever pause to think where they derive their *English*? Would it not be well some day to carry the scholar back to that interesting period when the relative position of Saxon and Norman was shown by their different languages when *hog, ox, pig, sheep, coll*, and, in general things rude and vulgar belonged to the former whilst *veal, beef, mutton, pork, venison*, receive their names from the Norman lord who ate them? Their "*house*" was the *home* of the conqueror and "*palace*" was the *mansion* of the conquered. Then the peasant wore *shirt, breeches, hose, shoes, hat*, (Saxon); and the noble dressed in *gown, coat, boots, mantle, cap*, (all Norman).

might be profitable also to glance at the battles which ensued between these two tongues and their final agreement to unite their fortunes under a common name, the English. Since that time, however, they have had many contests, nor is the struggle for supremacy yet finished, though the issues are now somewhat changed. The "irrepressible conflict" between the language of serf and baron, high-life and low-life, kitchen and parlor, country and city, practice and theory, nature and art, still continues. Each contributes something to the other, but they at times appear as bitter rivals.

Life thoughts, agitating ideas, common impressions, are sometimes expressed in pithy phrases or sentences, and these contain the compact gold, from which the "foil" is hammered. They are struck out when the soul is on fire. We hardly know their origin, yet they are in the lips of all. Some party, sect, or nation begins with a purpose, and must first embody that purpose in a motto: "Death to the Paimin"; "No bishop no king"; "By this conquer"; "Carry the war into Africa"; and now that little Jacksonian sentence which thrills every American heart, "The Union must and shall be preserved," all have one day been watchwords. The connection between thought and expression is more intimate; they have a reflex influence upon each other. If there is a struggling emotion in the human soul it will have utterance in some way. Perhaps a Massachusetts regiment, with slow and solemn step, marches through the streets of the metropolis, singing a weird-like song about a brave "soul" which in the body fought for freedom and still is "marching on"; soon "John Brown" is heard on the banks of the Potomac, among the cotton fields of South Carolina, and on the distant prairies of the West, because it has in it "the elements of a revolution."

But how strangely this war creeps into everything; no matter what one begins to talk about, he ends with that. This article was intended to show that the teacher might profitably pay more attention to grammar as a science, to the philosophy of language; that by so doing he would open to himself a field of study at once varied and profitable, and that then the scholar would become more deeply interested. Of course the mind must not be burdened with nice distinctions, or too much learning; yet, surely the faithful instructor may, by timely allusions and familiar illustration, show the real life and beauty of a study which too often, improperly taught, becomes dry and wearisome to all concerned.

J. T. R.

The Importance of Normal Schools.

In his annual report to the Board of Education, the New York City Superintendent of Schools says:

"There can, as it seems to me, be no reasonable doubt of the absolute necessity of a Normal School, for the specific education and proper preparation of teachers for the important and responsible duties devolving upon them, under a system so vast and comprehensive as ours. No amount or degree of mere instruction in our grammar Schools can supply the want of this special and professional training, under teachers competent to illustrate it in all its diversified branches. It is clearly not so much the knowledge or the attainments which the teacher possesses as the practical ability to communicate that knowledge to pupils of every grade, which is needed in the proper discharge of the duties of the school room; and this practical ability can only result from long and varied experience or be conferred by a thorough and comprehensive course of instruction, especially and exclusively devoted to that object.

"This principle is fully recognized, and universally acted upon in all other professions, trades or callings. Neither the clergyman, the attorney, the physician, the merchant, the officer, the artist, the architect or the mechanic, is deemed competent to enter upon his specific profession or business without a previous special preparation for its duties. Why, then, should we expect or permit the teacher, to whom we commit our most cherished and valuable interests, to enter upon his important avocations, and pursue them for years, without any of those professional qualifications which his position demands?"

At the annual Junior exhibition at Haverford College, Pa., on Thursday last, New England was represented in the salutatory English oration, "The Life and Times of Horace," by Thomas J. Battey, of Burrillville, R. I.; and in the valedictory English oration, "A Comparison between Ancient and Modern Civilization," by Jos. G. Pinkham, North Vassalborough, Me. The Philadelphia Press reports that the exercises were marked by justness of thought and clearness and elegance of expression, and must be gratifying to the friends of the performers. "A manly and appropriate style of elocution prevailed, and, altogether, the young gentlemen acquitted themselves in a manner, which spoke well for the character of their Alma Mater."

Temperature of the Earth.

In Asia, said Prof. Guyot in a recent lecture, the greatest mass of land on the surface of the globe, there is the most rapid reception and radiation of solar heat. There is a difference of 106° between the mean January and July temperatures in the northeastern part of the continent. The winter of this region is the coldest on the globe, but the summer is the warmest in that latitude. The mean barometrical heights in this part of Asia, if interpreted as in insular localities, would indicate, in summer, a depression of the surface of the country below the level of the ocean; in winter, an elevation to the level of table lands. The capital of Siberia has a mean annual temperature 20° below freezing point, but the mean heat of its short summer, which seldom exceeds two months in length, is 58° or 60° above zero. The earth is frozen, in some places, to the depth of six hundred feet. In summer this frozen soil, thawed to the depth of about three feet, produces barley and other varieties of the cereal grains. The growth of vegetation is so rapid when it begins as to justify a saying of the Russians, that you can *hear* the grass grow. In a region seemingly so inhospitable are built three hundred cities and villages. That this soil has been frozen for ages was long since shown by a beautiful geological discovery. In the frozen gravel which composes the banks of the Lena there are found the icy remains of a mastadon (*Elephas Pleimigenius*), even the flesh of which is so well preserved that when thawed, dogs devour it with avidity. Europe, on account of its peninsular character, experiences no great extremes of climate. In winter the American climate is continental, in summer, maritime.

The coldest summer temperature observed is near the mouth of Baffin's Bay, where the icebergs of the north are driven down by the currents of the Arctic Ocean. Careful observations show that the mean temperature of the whole globe is not the same for every season of the year. In July, the average temperature of the northern hemisphere is 71°, while the southern hemisphere has, in the same month, an average temperature of 64°, giving a mean for the whole globe of 62°. In January, the southern hemisphere has a mean of 59°, the northern of 49°, making an average of 54°; thus showing a difference of 8° in the warmth of the atmosphere of the whole globe in those two months. Another element influencing the distribution of heat, is the difference of elevation of different

parts of the surface of the globe. A height no greater than some of the European steeples modifies climate as much as a degree of latitude.

From the Wisconsin Journal of Education.

What will the War do for us, in an Educational Point of View?

Our present national struggle has a deep intellectual and moral significance, apart from its political one. The latter aspect of the question we leave to the statesman; we shall, in a few paragraphs, consider what the war may, and we trust will, do for the country, in the former.

There are many particulars in which, for a number of years past, the nation has been receiving either a defective education, or no education at all. We refer, now, not to the education imparted in schools; but to that education of circumstances, of civil and social polity, and domestic life, which form, by far, the largest element in the culture of a people. The great majority of our population have unjustifiably wasted the highest use of their powers upon getting and spending. The people rule: that was the theory; and yet, it must be confessed, that this popular sovereignty extended little, practically, beyond the unsubstantial privilege of periodically electing one set of candidates and rejecting another. Then there was that other theory, that democratic institutions are managed for the people in a spirit of perfect openness and fairness, and that the citizens of such a government are eagle-eyed in their scrutiny of public men and measures. This was very fine; but, unfortunately, our later history would only serve to show how far practice, even in a republic, may be divorced from theory. It is not easy to conceive how state affairs could be administered more corruptly, or with more culpable concealment, in Austria or Japan, than they were, for a time, with us. We have seen, on the one side, officers sacrificing great public interests to personal or party ends; and, on the other, the blindest popular credulity. Party leaders were unscrupulous and irresponsible to the people, merely captious and querulous.

Now, the government of a state, like the government of a school, has a two-fold office: it should not only preserve order and administer public concerns, but also contribute to the mental and moral advancement of its citizens. The latter is not less important than the former function; but, until quite recently, no successful attempt was made to discharge it. Hence, on

at the most valuable formative influences has been lost to the mind of the nation.

So also, for years, social and domestic life have not yielded the highest educational product. Society had come to be a sort of recognized warfare, notwithstanding a certain exterior polish and fineness. Instead of bodies, it was hearts that were smitten. Children, receiving their training for this social campaign, were taught, so far as society taught at all, not so much to be pure, holy, modest, self-denying, to seek lofty ends by noble means, as to be cunning, arrogant, violent—in fine, to make every thing bend to the self-urged claims of "No. 1." The simplicity, manliness and stern integrity of our earlier times had given place to mere fox-like sharpness, and facile versatility. The standard of public morals was shifted from the absolute to the expedient; and, by a most unhappy perversion, accident stood, in social education, where fixed character alone ought to stand. The sacred associations of home were little more than traditions of the past; we cherished few of the tender memories which cluster around what, to every unperverted heart, must always be "the dearest spot of earth." Even the profound instincts of patriotism were sleeping a sleep akin to that of death.

But, let us thank heaven, all this is broken up. The deep places of the nation's heart have been reached in time to save all that is best and worth saving. With the firing of the first gun upon that southern fort commenced the hour and the work of our regeneration. We shall not be slow learners now, and here are some of the lessons which we shall either learn for the first time, or learn anew, or for which we shall perceive new uses and applications.

We shall learn the worth of liberty. I think we of the present generation did not know its full value. We enjoyed its blessings unconsciously, as we drink in the air or sunlight; and though this, generally, was a very good way to enjoy them, still, it would seem necessary for intelligent appreciation, that we should know the ground on which we stood. We shall understand soon, if we do not now, that liberty is worth whatever country is worth. It is by liberty that man has a country, in the true sense. It is by liberty that he has rights; it is by rights that he has obligations; it is by obligations that he is a citizen and a patriot. The idea of country is a moral idea, and love of country is not a sensual but a spiritual affection. "Wherever liberty is, there is my country,"

said the patriot: that was ennobling the sentiment of patriotism and elevating country to the plane of the absolute and unchanging. Still more, we shall learn that liberty is worth whatever life is worth. "Give me liberty or give me death,"—those words of Henry will live again in the heart of the nation as they have not lived for three quarters of a century. And they will live, not in empty declamation merely, but in the sublimest action and suffering. If there were those who believed the time gone by for making heroic sacrifices for liberty, they may see, in the fall of an Ellsworth, a Winthrop, or a Lyon, that liberty is worth as much in this generation as it ever was, and is to-day bought with as high a price as ever before in the history of man.

We shall learn, too, a deeper reverence for law. Carlyle, writing, some years since, of American institutions, characterized our government as "anarchy plus the street constable." The present grand vindication of the dignity and authority of law, must set the malignant charge at rest forever. It is law which has drawn the sword against lawless revolt. It is law which has called half a million men from the avocations of peace and the tranquillity of home, to the hardships of the camp, and the terrors of the battle-field. It is law which has made the hearts of twenty millions of people as one strong, brave, rich heart, to give, to pray, to do and to suffer. If what we see on the side of all loyal citizens, at the present time, be not bowing low before the supremacy of law, then we cannot read the movements of the human heart. And this deep feeling will not pass away with the causes which excited it. It will be wrought into the national character. Every man who has teaching to do, in the future, may stand up erect, and, without compromise or abatement of demand, assert the claims of law. The nation herein is setting a glorious example for all ages. She has put on her beautiful, if terrible, garments, and she stands to-day, where Gabriel and Michael stood, in the primal time, to smite down this latest and not least of the progeny of the great Anarch and Seceder. Henceforth, it will be one of the sharpest popular instincts, that the man who lifts his hand against law and order is the greatest foe to liberty, his country and humanity.

But we shall learn, also, the virtue of subordination. Here, I think, we had much to learn. In the intense individuality which republican institutions develop, there spring up a temper

and habit of self-assertion. Men think it unmanly to admit any claim looking to superiority in their fellow-men. This feeling is often carried so far as to end in a spirit of unreasoning opposition to such as are placed in authority, merely *because* they are in authority. Even the youth in our schools, and the "help" on our farms and in our kitchens, are very impatient under legitimate restraint or command. They must be deferred to, and their inclination appeased by such sweet phrases as "if you please," "if you have a mind to," when service or obedience is required of them. The commanders of our regiments recently encountered this unyielding spirit, and had a difficult task to mould such a mass of stubborn will into cheerful obedience. Their men lacked neither courage, capacity or endurance. They would not blench in the face of a battery, and were pleasantly affected by the risks of a scouting expedition. But to submit to rigid rules; to bend or conform their will to that of another was the most unpalatable part of the subordinate soldier's duties; and to secure it, perhaps the most difficult part of the officer's work. But this same unpalatable military rule, with its terrible inflexibility, will, in the end, break down all insubordination; and its exacting demands come to us somewhat providentially, in this respect, to teach us that there must be authority, restraint, unquestioning obedience, not only as a theory of Christian ethics, but as a practical element in national life. We shall thus be taught positively, from army discipline, and negatively, from the dire results every where apparent by reason of the flagrant act of disobedience and insubordination of which the disloyal portion of the country is guilty.

And we shall learn, not only how to obey, but also, how to respect those placed in authority over us. Was the lesson needed? I think, as a national trait, we had nearly lost the susceptibility of reverence; and, generally, the surest way for a man to forfeit all claim to respect and public esteem was to run for or attain office. It is true, there was, often, little to respect in the character of public officers; but, then, the people, having deliberately chosen such men to represent them, should not, by exposing and decrying their unfitness, contribute to depreciate civil authority and to lessen the influence which civil government, from its nature and objects, should exercise over the mind. If we had not been taught by the Apostle that "every soul should be subject unto the higher

powers," if it were not true that temporal authority is, in part, designed to illustrate the sovereignty of God;—still, we ought to feel that the offices dignified by the labors of Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, and the Adamses, can never become wholly common and unclean until the country is prepared to take that fearful leap into the gulf of revolution which France took in 1789.

It has been a popular notion that every man was fit for any position to which he could procure his election or appointment. The question was not, am I capable, am I honest, am I the best man to be found; but, can I be elected; and not even that, but can I *procure my election* by using any or every means—by descending to acts which, in a sound commonwealth, would forever politically, as they do morally, disqualify their author from holding any position of honor, trust or emolument. A man might have been a gambler, a horse-jockey, or circus-clown yesterday, yet, without character or culture above the demands of such a vocation, you would find him a candidate for Congress or the Presidency, to-day. And, if he could secure the requisite number of votes, you would find this man troubled with no scruple upon the subject of incompetency. He would assume the duties of the post with a confidence inversely as his capacity. Many regard this as the glory of our institutions, that the poorest has an equal chance of preferment with the most favored. Properly understood, this is a grand distinction between our own and all other governments. But are poverty and obscurity *alone* sufficient qualifications for responsible office? Must we always dignify "need, greed and vanity," by giving them the noblest prizes in the gift of a free people? As I conceive, the notion under consideration has wrought us incalculable injury in almost every relation of life. It has, for instance, placed in command of troops in the dread issue of war, men who *might* have been able to fill a brief, who *were* able to demonstrate their celerity in running away from the foe; but with no other perceptible element of fitness for office than those questionable ones. It has made us so superficial in matters of public polity, and even in the ordinary transactions of mercantile, manufacturing and professional life, that about the only thing we could be said to do thoroughly was to *humbug*. We almost merited the application of the couplet originally designed for that famous English prince,

"Who, in the course of one revolving moon,
Was fiddler, statesman, chemist and buffoon."

But, it is to be hoped, we are in a fair way to be relieved of this mischievous idea. It is beginning to dawn upon many minds that a man need not have a military education and military genius or aptitude to command men on the field of battle. The resignation of one hundred and fifty commissioned officers recently, self-convicted of incompetency, will not be thrown away on matters not military. The value of special training will appear in a favorable light from the importance which is attached to the services of West Point graduates. And will not the examination to which candidates for army appointments are subjected, lead to the impression that there are other tests of fitness for office besides personal popularity, or party popularity, or party availability, and that many things are required to qualify a man for the duties of public life besides a certificate from the clerk of elections, and an oath to support the constitution?

It is likely, then, from these and similar considerations, that we shall learn to respect special fitness, personal worth, skill and talent; that we shall seek out these qualities and press them into the public service.

We shall be as deeply disciplined in heroism as ever a nation was before. Look at the deeds of devotion and self-sacrifice which daily find their way through the press to every family circle in the land. Such teaching as this, of itself, might energize and regenerate a country infinitely more apathetic and depraved than ours has ever yet been. A nation, like a man, becomes heroic when it dares to suffer, when it chooses to suffer; when it prefers an appalling risk to a ignoble safety; when we see that what it endures it prefers to endure in obedience to some great principle of Right; when it can let the last drop of its life-blood go before it can let justice, honor and self-respect go. And this is the stand this nation is taking at the present time. Let us be thankful that such heroism has its being in our day.

Doubtless we shall be instructed in many other respects. We shall learn that modesty which "lets another praise it and not its own mouth." We shall see clearly, in the issues, sacrifices and sufferings of the present war, that it is never safe to depart, in the smallest degree, from principle; that

"To side with Truth is noble, though we share its bitter crust,

For its cause bring fame and profit, and 'tis prosperous to be just."

We shall be made to feel that the true greatness of a nation consists solely in wisdom;—in that

enlarged and comprehensive wisdom which includes education, knowledge, religion, freedom, with every influence which extends, and every institution which supports them.

Thus, if we make a proper use and application of the stern lessons we are receiving, we shall stand, at the close of the rebellion, greater, purer, and stronger than we ever have been. We shall have expended hundreds of millions of dollars, and thousands of brave lives shall have been offered upon their country's altar; but in return, we shall be enriched, in every element which can compact, liberalize and establish a State—in self-sacrifice, self-respect, patriotism, love of justice and consistency; and these United States, no longer a house divided against itself, but united indeed, shall become and be forever, one in interest, one in sympathy and one in endeavor. This is the ideal of the true patriot to-day, and it is none too high or visionary; for beneath the outward events of the world—the battles of parties, the schemings of factions, the elevation of peoples and the fall of kings, the doings of the active and the theories of the speculative—the sure providence of God is operating in the depths of humanity, inspiring its powers, guiding its destiny and preparing it to vindicate everywhere the Divine likeness in which it was originally created.

The Tools Great Men Work With.

It is not tools that make the workman, but the trained skill and perseverance of the man himself. Indeed, it is proverbial that the bad workman never yet had a good tool. Some one asked Opie by what wonderful process he mixed his colors. "I mix them with my brains, sir," was his reply. It is the same with every workman who would excel. Ferguson made marvellous things—such as his wooden clock, that accurately measured the hours—by means of pen-knife,—a tool in everybody's hand, but then everybody is not a Ferguson. A pan of water and two thermometers were the tools by which Dr. Black discovered latent heat; and a prism, a lens, and a sheet of pasteboard enabled Newton to unfold the composition of light and the origin of color. An eminent foreign *savant* once called upon Dr. Wollaston, and requested to be shown over his laboratory, in which science had been enriched by so many important discoveries, when the doctor took him into a study, and, pointing to an old tea-tray on the table, containing a few watch-glasses, test-papers, a small balance and a blow-pipe, said:

"There is all the laboratory I have!" Stothard learnt the art of combining colors by closely studying butterflies' wings; he would often say that no one knew what he owed to these tiny insects. A burnt stick and a barn door served Wilkie in lieu of pencil and canvas. Berwick first practiced drawing on the cottage-walls of his native village, which he covered with sketches in chalk; and Benjamin West made his first brushes out of the cat's tail. Ferguson laid himself down in the fields by night in a blanket and made a map of the heavenly bodies by means of a thread with small beads on it, stretched between his eye and the stars. Franklin first robbed the thunder-cloud of its lightning by means of a kite made with two cross-sticks and a cross handkerchief. Watt made the first model of the condensing steam-engine out of an old anatomist's syringe, used to inject the arteries previous to dissection. Gifford worked his first problem in mathematics, when a cobbler's apprentice, upon small scraps of leather, which he beat smooth for the purpose; while Rittenhouse, the astronomer, first calculated eclipses on his plow-handle.—*Smiles' Self-Help.*

Love of Country.

BREATHES there a man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,

This is my own my native land!

Whose heart has ne'er within him burned,
As home, his footsteps he hath turned

From wandering strand?

If such then breathe, go mark him well;

For him no minstrel raptures swell;

High though his titles, proud his name,

Boundless his wealth as wish can claim;

Despite those titles, power and pelf,

The wretch concentred all in self,

Living, shall forfeit fair renown,

And doubly dying, shall go down

To the vile dust from whence he sprung,

Unwept, unhonored and unsung.

SIR WALTER SCOTT.

EDUCATION IN NEW JERSEY.—The annual report of the Superintendent of Public Schools shows that the number of these in operation last year was 1669, which were attended by 137,578 pupils, or 58.264 on an average. In forty-two cities and townships the schools are free. The amount of money raised and expended in 1861, was \$549,123, an increase of \$17,383, as compared with 1860. Of this sum \$80,000 was appropriated by the State for the support of public schools, \$10,000 for the Normal School, and \$1200 for the Farnum Preparatory Institute. The remainder was mostly raised by local taxation, \$40,440 having been derived from "other sources."

From the Indiana School Journal.

The Cramming vs. The Drawing-Out System.

BY THOMAS J. VATER.

THIS case has been pending for many years; has been passed upon by many courts, but has never had a final judgment rendered. And I hope it never will. New trials have been granted, appeals taken, and new advocates secured, almost without number, and still it remains an open question; and, as one *against* the other, I'm confident it ever will. It is now before the court of Indiana Teachers, has been discussed variously by the advocates of both plaintiff and defendant, and seems as far from settlement as ever. Indeed, I see no way to settle the dispute save that of compromise.

In this, as indeed most all cases at law, both parties are right, and both wrong. Each right in what it claims for itself, and wrong in what it denies the other. Let the "C. S." and the "D. O. S.," brothers as they are, grant this point as they should, and the dispute is at an end; a compromise is effected; the case dismissed from court; and they both will move on harmoniously and effectively in the work of educating mankind, whose necessities demand that the unnatural hostility should cease; and that the advocates of each should unite them in the prosecution of their noble purpose of elevating and improving the human mind.

The Cramming System, which means the system of putting in—filling up—is a very important element in the education of our kind. Indeed, it is a most important—nay, absolutely essential one—and must not be dispensed with. Else, all applications of the Drawing Out System will result in utter failure; for the very simple and apparent reason, that nothing can be *drawn out* from the thing into which nothing has been previously put.

The Drawing Out System, which means the leading of the mind to make an application of the facts and principles of which it is possessed—using knowledge—is also a very important and practical element in our education, and must by no means be dispensed with. Else the application of the Cramming System will be of no avail; for knowledge unapplied, is an article without the least particle of value to the possessor. We think these facts are indisputable, and so, almost, self-evident that they need no application. It is very important that children should learn to think; to reason from what they know to what they do not know; and it is evi-

dent they cannot think, without something to think about; cannot reason from what they know nothing.

Education is development; development is growth. The most perfect education is the most perfect development; the most perfect development is the most perfect growth; and the most perfect growth, is that which in form, size and adaptation is best calculated to render its possessor useful or give him the ability to be useful.

By the usages of society, education is divided into three branches, viz., Physical, Mental and Moral. Of the first the *modus* is most apparent, although it has occupied no considerable attention of our people. It is simple; food and exercise. The first is the Cramming, the second the Drawing Out System. First obtain the strength by absorption, then use it and increase it by diffusion; by expending it on surrounding objects. Observe. You may develop with but little exercise, by mere absorption, by feeding, but the development will be imperfect and profitless. You may, also, develop with but little absorption, by exercise, but it will be an inferior, defective development thus attained. You may develop by food and *little* exercise; you may develop by exercise and but little food; but in either case the development is so imperfect as to be almost, if not quite valueless. But you cannot have a complete and perfect development without both food and exercise, of the right kind and quality, at the right times. Perfect Physical education is obtained, then, and obtained only, by the application of the two systems,—the Cramming and Drawing Out. Either, alone, will not accomplish it, but combined they are all-sufficient.

This, then, seems to be a law of development. So far as I know, a law of all kinds of physical development,—man or beast, animal or vegetable. And I see no reason for thinking the law of mental and moral development differs very materially from it. In fact, observation and experience convince me that the laws governing each, are identical in fact, and uniform in action.

All acquired knowledge is relative and not absolute. We know what we observe or experience. And we observe or experience that which comes of our relations to the world about us. Then from what we know, we reason to what we do not know; and this deduction is only conviction or belief. Time resolves this into the observation or experience of some one, it may be the same, or another, and it then be-

comes knowledge. The mind is capable of grasping grand and mighty principles, and demonstrating almost with absolute certainty, certain results from certain relations; but the relations must first be a matter of knowledge. From certain facts have been deducted principles; but the facts were those well known.

Thus I discover both systems are essential to a perfect education, and neither can be dispensed with. If I omit the Cramming System, there is a want of knowledge of facts and things, from which to make deductions. If I omit the Drawing Out System, there is a want of application of knowledge possessed, to make it useful.

So the question should not be, when beginning the work of an education, upon *which* system shall I proceed? but shall I use them both at once, or one at a time? If one at a time, which first? These are important questions, upon the correct solution of which depends the success of my labors in the noble work of instructing. I would answer always, one at a time. One thing at a time should be the principle upon which the teacher works. One thing at a time; that done well, begin another. Do not try to pour *in* and pour *out* at the same time; or I shall be sure to do neither very effectively. The more distinctly the time for each thing is brought before the mind of a child, the more readily will it perceive and know and do its duty.

To the question, "which first," it seems to me there can be but one answer. The Cramming first, then the Drawing Out.

There is a very simple, yet perfect, instrument for emptying fluid from a cask, called a siphon. It consists merely of a tube bent in form similar to a lady's hair pin, with one arm a little longer than the other. By filling this tube with water and immersing the short arm in the cask till it reaches the bottom, the long arm passing outside and reaching below the bottom, the fluid in it will pass through the tube, from the bottom, over the top and out, until the cask is entirely empty.

The Siphon, alone, has no power; but it has capacity. And if I will but fill it once, it will draw for me a million times its own contents, if there be so much within its reach. But observe, I must *first* fill it; must first put something *in*, before I can draw something *out*. Yes, if need be to express it in its true form, I must cram it full to overflowing; and then I can draw out what I wish.

I have thought, and the thought presses it-

self upon me, that the infant mind is not unlike that instrument. It has wonderful capacities — capacities almost infinitely beyond our comprehension! — but no power. It is an empty, helpless thing, until the warm, gushing love of a mother, kindly affection of sister and brother, and assiduous care of a teacher, has stored its mind brim-full of knowledge; knowledge of facts and things. It can learn these; they are congenial to its nature. Principles are abstract, the child-mind cannot comprehend them: takes no interest in them, until it begins to mature.

The process by which the mind obtains a knowledge of the former, is absorbent, entirely; it literally drinks them in, and stores them away, as they present themselves. That by which it obtains a knowledge of the latter is purely inductive. It literally draws out from what it knows. From this thing, and its action; this fact, and its relation; certain principles are deduced. This kind of mental labor, to the young child, is drudgery. It cannot perform it — was not made for it — it has other work to do. Its office is to perceive the apparent, and not to discover the hidden. "Who is that?" "What is that?" "What makes them do so?" are ever a child's inquiries.

Shall it ask for naught? Shall I attend carefully to development in the order nature requires; or shall I stultify the child by reversing the order; by endeavoring to improve the plan purposed by the Great Author of its being? I will give the child-mind all it desires. Fill it brim-full of just such knowledge as its nature demands. I will endeavor to be emphatically a *teacher*; one who imparts readily my own information, in earnest truthfulness, to the hungry mind of the child; and not one who labors to *fill*, by an exhaustive system of *drawing out*, that is destructive to my success, and ruinous to the mind thus tortured. Food first, then exercise. Knowledge first, then deduction. Childhood first, then maturity. And woe be to the child that has a teacher who labors persistently to reverse this order! Woe be to it, and alas! for it. For like a pump in an empty well, the more you work — the stronger the suction — the more terrible the destruction to its capacity for working efficiently, when properly positioned. There is no mistake about this; I have tried it, and found it too true. Give the child knowledge. Analysis, nor synthesis is a natural operation of the infant mind; (and infancy is gauged by the amount of absorbed information, *more than the number of years of existence*), *it does not wish to pick to pieces, or build up*

structures; but to know them as they are presented to it, entire and complete. It cares not to know the component parts of a loaf of bread; or method of its construction, until it is familiar with bread and its use. And it will learn all about bread, its use, mode of construction and component parts, much quicker by beginning at the right place first than otherwise; even if it were possible to teach the analysis of a thing of which we are entirely ignorant.

Having arrived at this truth, and I think it an incontrovertible one, I would have it fully impressed on my mind; carry it with me, and apply it at all times; in every step of educational progress. One or two applications, for my article is already longer than anticipated, and I am done. *

The first step in school education is to learn to read; but little else can be done until this is accomplished. To learn to read we must learn words. Words represent things and thoughts; these the child has, before it enters the school-room. Spoken words represent them to the ear, and written, to the eye. With the latter representation, as a teacher, I have most to do; and how shall I begin? Shall I follow nature; or, establish custom? Shall I do as my father did; my grand-father did; my great grand-father did; my great-great-grand-father did; Or shall I follow the rules of reason and right? Shall I invert the order of the child-mind; or shall I follow its bent? Shall I teach elements first, then the thing they form; or shall I teach the thing, and then its elements? Shall I teach it first *letters*, (elements) then their *combinations*, and lastly the *word*; when I know it is not natural for the child to receive knowledge in this way; or shall I teach it the *word* first, and assist it to analyze and combine when the mind has matured sufficiently to cause it to desire this kind of information? Think. How does a child learn words as they represent things and thoughts to the ear? In the elementary or combined form? Who would think of teaching separately the elements of bread, then their combination, that a child might recognize a loaf when he saw it? Who? No one. I would apply the principle: teach it words *as words*, and let spelling and analyzing "go to graas!" until the child's mind was sufficiently matured to appropriate, enjoy and profit by the other process; and make much more intelligent and accurate readers, in little more than half the time. When it has become a ready reader, and has a little knowledge of words by sight, I would begin to analyze and spell and not before

Educate Your Children Near Home.

So much has been said and written upon the education of the young, as to make it evident to my mind that there can be no higher nor more solemn charge, than to preside over the development of immortal powers. And yet, notwithstanding the sacredness of the trust, and the sad effects resulting from its betrayal or neglect, it is amazing with how little consideration parents send their sons and daughters to distant schools, simply perhaps because recommended by strangers as the most popular and flourishing, and as being supported by the rich and influential. How many parents have taken their children from institutions which were worthy of trust and patronage, and where their young minds and hearts were slowly yet safely opening and expanding under the best and purest of influences, and have conveyed them to genteel and fashionable boarding schools, that they might be sacrificed at the shrine of fashion; or that they might obtain a few vain and useless accomplishments, at the expense of artlessness and simplicity, of true mental improvement and moral rectitude. No wonder, therefore, that we hear the giddy young maid in her early teens, soliloquizing in this manner: "If I go to some large city and receive a 'degree' in some distinguished seminary, I may not gain more knowledge, but I shall gain what is of more importance, distinction in the eyes of my associates, and my manners will become more refined by mingling with the higher circles of society."

Oh! ye mothers of a Christian land, one would think that you must shudder at these outbursts of girlish folly and vanity, and place the buckler of motherly sway between your darlings and the allurements of that vain world for which they are longing. But alas! instead of this, the fond mother too often hails these intimations as the beginnings of an aspiring ambition, and, persuading herself that she ought to sacrifice every selfish consideration for the well-being of her children, sends them away from home into untried scenes, to be nourished in the bosom of mercenary strangers. In the meantime the instructors who have been setting the germs of knowledge in the youthful mind, are repaid with neglect and unthankfulness, and deprived of the reward of their tender cares. They have implanted the seeds that others may gather the fruits, or perchance, by pernicious precepts, wither the fresh hopes of youth. When, from a love of novelty, an appetite for eminence

and superiority, haughty pride, or a weak indulgence to the uneasiness or perverseness of youth, parents withdraw their patronage from institutions whose claims to confidence and support have been fully confirmed, they perhaps strike a death-blow at the very root of noble enterprise, and pale the powers of an ardent and generous mind:

"A pebble on the streamlet scant
Has turned the course of many a river;
A dew-drop on the tiny plant
Has warped the giant oak forever."

The farmer, when he prepares the rugged soil for the admission of the tender plant, and watches its progress from day to day, is even then rewarded by a foretaste of the natural fruitage. But tell him that he is only to enjoy the early blossoms of the grain and fruit; that another will garner up the golden harvest, and sit in the shade of the vine his hand has trained and cultivated; will not his arm lose its vigor, the hopes of his energetic mind become prostrated, and the honest, God-like principle of exertion be wholly destroyed? Think you, then, that they who work and toil in the weedy, stubborn soil of the intellectual field need less encouragement to give them faith and vigor in the tiresome task? What indeed is physical toil, compared with the intense mental exertions put forth by the conscientious, faithful teacher?

Think of these things, then, parents and guardians of youth, and cheerfully give your aid, sympathies and counsel to the deserving instructors of your children.—*Wisconsin Journal of Education.*

Thought-Dressing.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

It is an odd, amusing conceit that our thoughts are separate individuals,—little brain-children or great immortal brain-children, like the Goddess Minerva. Only imagine it! Hundreds and thousands of these children born every day. Of some prolific minds, millions, I think. "Collect your thoughts!" Heavens, what a multitude? How they wrangle with one another. Do you see a family resemblance? Surely the idiocracy of brothers. Brain-children,—thoughts,—they must have clothes,—words. Do you dress yours well? No lack of tailors. No lack of ready-made apparel. Call at Worcester's great establishment, or, "Get the Best,"—step into Webster's wholesale emporium. What shelves full.

How strangely that man clothes his family. Did you ever see such carelessness? Big coats on little boys, and little coats on giants. Short pants on long legs, large hats on small heads,—funny, intensely.

I knew a fellow, ambitious to display his brain's progeny, buy a great many suits from the best of language shops. But, behold, when he called his children together there were not half enough to wear the clothes. So he stuffs the extra suits and stands them in rows, and almost comes to believe them real sons. Did you ever!

Dress indicates, or ought to indicate, character and position. Color of goods and style of making are suggestive. Also, we should dress as occasion requires. The same principles hold in thought-dressing. Words are as variously shaped and colored, figuratively speaking, as are garments, literally speaking. Some authors indulge in the flashy colors,—the purples and crimsons. Carlyle calls Rousseau's *Romances* of the "rose-pink" hue. Carlyle's thoughts are dressed in the oddest fashion. Some are ill-dressed enough; in ragged words. You think the athletic thoughts have torn their clothes. Our lyric poets have a *pen-chant* for tricking their pets out in the most whimsical garbs. When the fashions change these pets will hardly be known. Some folks never attempt to follow fashion, and yet always appear elegant and in good taste. Some happy geniuses have a similar faculty of making their thoughts presentable.

After all, as dress doesn't make the man, neither do words make the thought;—but, as Beecher says, a "man when he is made looks best dressed," so thoughts, however good in themselves, are much improved by an appropriate and tasteful expression, which constitutes the dress of them.—*Indiana School Journal*.

THE veteran teacher, Benjamin Greenleaf, of Bradford, Massachusetts, whose arithmetics have become so famous, was lately asked how many pupils he had instructed in the fifty years of his labors as a teacher. He replied: "I have instructed six thousand pupils. About fifty of these have become ministers of the gospel; as many more have become lawyers; a greater number have become doctors and teachers; a much larger number still have become farmers and mechanics; four have been sent to the State Prison; two have been hanged—and—a good many ought to be."

For the Schoolmaster.
A Rough Sketch of the Field.

THE subject to which you are invited to give your attention at this hour, three times a week, for the rest of the term, is didactics, which may be defined as those principles that lie at the foundation of all good teaching, and the methods in teaching that are based thereon.

The teachers to whom I shall most often refer, are those employed in our public schools, and the education most frequently spoken of, will be that which should be received therein; and yet any person, institution, event or circumstance, which affects in any degree, however slight, the mental, moral or physical condition of a child, or of a community, is, in an important sense, an educator; and one's education is the sum total of all the influences received during life. These influences may result from causes now at work, or from those that were long ago in action, to produce the state of society into which one is born. Thus every child in New England has reason to rejoice in the character of the early settlers of New England, and the whole civilized world is much indebted to Greece and to Rome for the literature, art, jurisprudence and love of liberty bequeathed by them to us.

The teacher, then, in the public schools is not the only educator, but, on the contrary, should consider himself one among many kinds of educators, and he who will take a broad and comprehensive view of the various agencies at work in the great field of education, who will ascertain the part assigned to each, their mutual relations and dependencies, and their relative importance, will see more clearly what is assigned him to do, and will make fewer mistakes in doing it. He will also, I think, be often cheered in his labors, by reflecting on the many noble and able coadjutors, wise, great and good men at work with him, for the good of mankind. At the same time, losing something of his self-importance, he will become more humble, but not less diligent, and the wish will spring up in his heart for all to work together in harmony for the common good.

What, then, are some of the leading educational agencies, centres of influence, that affect for good or for evil, all, who, at the present day, are born in civilized communities? They are: 1, the home; 2, the street; 3, the school; 4, the church; 5, the press. Besides these there might be mentioned others, more general in their influence, and affecting all members

the human family,—as the century, the government, the religion, the zone of the earth in which one is born; the occupation and social position of parents, and their mental, moral and physical condition; the peculiar temperament, tendencies and capacities with which God has endowed each one of us. It is an interesting topic, though one which we have not time here fully to consider, what consequences to the individual follow, from changing successively, the quality of each of these conditions of existence.

Do you remember those blind and those dumb children whom we visited last vacation? How slight a change, at birth, in a delicate organism, had wholly turned the current of our existence! A slight pressure on the brain from the tablets of the skull, had degraded us from the head to the foot of our classes, "bright" no longer, but "dull" and "stupid"; perhaps had consigned us to horrible idiocy. Change the zone of the earth in which is to be our home, and lo, Christianity, letters, culture and the arts vanish, as on the shore of Smith's Sound, among our shaggy mates, we strike the glistening ball, with walrus-rib hockies, or, overcome by the oppressive heat, lie listlessly at length under the palm trees of the Pacific. Children are born each day in Utah, whose future must differ from their contemporaries' in Rhode Island. Some children are born into happy, peaceful homes, where love and comfort, if not luxury, reign. There are children in drunkards' homes; in the purlieus and dens of cities, where, seemingly, everything evil and nothing good, enshrouds them,—God help them! How differently do those born at the South look upon the present civil war, from what we do born at the North. Two centuries ago, how changed from the present were the associations clustering around the youth of a Providence boy; yet nearly under the feet of the children of Rhode Island, as they sit to-day in their pleasant school-rooms, and on the same earth, the young Australian savage is twirling his boomerang.

Some important deductions could be made from pursuing such an examination further; one of which seems to be, that through all these changes, whenever and wherever born, a perception of duty and a love of truth characterize man.

The wise teacher will not forget that all the agencies, spoken of above, not only affect the status of all children, but through the children affect his school, so that the state of the home, the street, the church and the press in his neigh-

borhood, is not a matter of indifference to him. What teacher does not know how easy it is for him to keep a good school in one district, how hard it is in another? What teacher is not, at times, painfully aware that the ignorance, stupidity, filth, rudeness, vulgarity or profanity of many homes, is but too plainly evinced by his pupils in the school-room or on the play-ground? Here enters a sweet-looking, tidy little girl, interested in her studies, inquisitive, bright, playful, gentle in manner and unselfish,—what testimony in favor of her home does she bear ever about with her! That slovenly boy is frequently tardy and absent; his parents let him do as he pleases. That young miss is yawning, though in the middle of the forenoon, and yet not from too late study last night, for her lessons are not half learned; her parents let her stay out late at parties; she needs sleep, and ought not, as she is, to enter the school-room.

The street also leaves its mark upon the school. It is there that the inner and, at times, the ignobler qualities of the heart are exhibited. Children learn a great deal in going to and in coming home from school. Selfishness, lying, thieving, profanity, drunkenness and obscenity, find them susceptible, all eye and ear; so also do the many shop-windows; so do pleasant countenances, friendly greetings, pure conversation, little kindnesses, integrity and honesty.

He that notices the demeanor, plays and conversation of the children of Catholics and of Friends, and compares them with those of the various other denominations, cannot fail to see that the church makes itself felt even in childhood. In the one seriousness of thought and manner is developed; in another a marvellous faith; in a third intellectual supremacy; and it is an important question, what effect upon the collective life of humanity would legitimately result from the universal prevalence of one or another of the different phases of Christianity.

The teacher now inquires, what is the peculiar office of each of these five agencies. In the home especially, the affections are to be developed; in the street our relations to our fellow-men are to be learned and our rank among them settled; in the church the truths of religion are to be unfolded and enforced; the press should mirror to us the passing life of the world; the school confer culture, and all favor virtue.

The teacher's business is primarily with his school. Yet he soon perceives that some things are desirable and others to be deprecated in the community. In the home, love should reign;

in the street, courtesy and independence; the church should be diligent in its search for truth, and abstain from persecution; the press should report facts and the principles that underlie them accurately, as far as ascertained, and exhibit no partisan spirit; the school should foster good mental and moral habits.

And here it may be said that one centre of influence should not be allowed to control the function of another. The substitution of parochial for public schools would undoubtedly be detrimental to the State. Parents who try to educate their children at home, often find, when too late, that they have reared but overgrown babies.

But not alone are schools one agency only for man's education, but the school of one teacher is itself but one of many grades of public schools, the alphabet, the primary, the intermediate, the grammar and the high school, and these are all supplemented by private schools, seminaries, the various professional and industrial schools, and the colleges; there are also many remedial and reformatory schools, such as the evening schools, reform schools, schools for the idiotic and feeble-minded, for the blind and the deaf and dumb.

Now, says the teacher, let me clearly understand my post. I turn to the Constitution of Rhode Island, which declares its schools founded to promote knowledge and virtue among men. Knowledge and virtue, companions of that better third, religion, that shall dispel error and suffering, civilize the savage, strengthen and deepen our best affections, and elevate and ennoble man. It is enough; I close the book. Let us ever remember that the whole purpose for which we enter the school-room is to work out by means of these the highest good of our pupils. By this as a test we will try every method, every theory, every reform or change proposed in our schools or to be proposed,—does it tend to promote, in the best way, knowledge and virtue among men?

To the elucidation of the best methods of attaining this end, so far as schools are concerned, I now ask your attention.

DR. SONTAG, the Astronomer of Hayes' expedition, was frozen to death. He was on a visit to the Esquimaux settlement to obtain dogs, when he fell through the ice and got wet, and in that condition froze to death. Some six weeks after his death, an expedition went out and recovered the body, which they buried.

Have Some Fresh Intellectual Acquisition Always in Hand.

SOME students, after getting fairly settled in their profession, merely work on from year to year with the materials of knowledge already acquired. Surely this is not wise. The case of the professional man is like that of the pioneer in a new settlement. When the fields already under cultivation are thoroughly subdued, the stumps removed, the ditches, drains and fences all in order, the pioneer does not then settle down composedly and consider his plantation as complete. It is to him only the signal to make another encroachment upon the virgin forest. He proceeds accordingly to bring a new field into cultivation. When the process with that field is complete, he begins with another. Thus he goes on, ever enlarging his domain, ever having under way at least one new movement in advance, until in time, one scarcely knows how or when, the poor hardy pioneer becomes the great landed proprietor. So should it be with the professional man. If he wants to make steady, healthful growth, he should always have by him some one new study,—something in hand that he can turn to from day to day, and give to it at least a few touches. It may be the acquisition of a new language, the mastering of some new branch of science, the preparation of a treatise or a book,—only let it be something not already contained in the routine of his profession, something that will add to his intellectual domain,—that will make him a larger proprietor. The danger with professional men is that of moving round and round in an unchanging circle. Clergymen especially are apt, after a few years, to fall into a certain stereotyped routine of thought,—a rut which they deepen perhaps, but they never get out of it. If you hear them for a year, you hear all they have to say. They do not literally (perhaps) turn the barrel over, and give the same identical sermons. But they might as well do it. They have no new ideas. It is only a continued iteration of the same old thoughts in some new dress. The only remedy against man's thus repeating himself is GROWTH. It must be all the while steadily invading the virgin forests of the unknown. While he cultivates diligently the fields already subdued, and duly fills his garner with the golden grain, he must all the while have at least one new wilderness tract under the process of being brought into cultivation. He must be always enlarging in some direction the bounds of his knowledge.

us only can he keep his mind fresh. Thus only can he fulfill the Master's injunction to bring forth things new and old."

You know the proverb about a finished city. A town that is really flourishing always shows signs of incompleteness. There are new houses, blocks of houses going up, old houses being torn down to be enlarged and modernized, and half-finished streets piled up with dirt and rubbish. Woe betide the place that is nowhere locked up with brick and mortar. A town that is finished, that has actually stopped growing, is already in a state of decadence. We have too many finished men among us,—men who have quietly ceased growing. It is a mistake. The man who ceases to go up, has begun to go down. There is no being stationary in this matter. If you are not adding to your stock of knowledge, you are losing. The medical man, who merely goes on practicing on the knowledge and theory already acquired, who takes no medical journals and does not keep himself abreast with the general progress of medical science, is inevitably falling behindhand. So with every other profession. If a man gives himself up entirely to his practice, if he becomes a man of mere routine, if he ceases to be in some substantial measure a student, making all the while fresh acquisitions, if he allows himself for one moment to entertain the thought that his professional education is or ever can be complete, he is making a mistake. He already shows fatal symptoms of decadence.

The difficulty does not occur usually in the first stages of professional career. In those early years, when a man is just struggling into position, there is abundant leisure for study, and commonly there is a fair amount of good solid study. But when a man has made some decided progress in his profession, when clients become numerous, or patients multiply, or the congregation becomes large, and necessary duties increase, then is the danger. Then comes the temptation to settle down into a fixed, comfortable routine. The man in full practice finds so much that he must do, that he has rarely the courage to take up anything not absolutely required by strict professional duty.

If men in such circumstances would fairly make the trial, they would find the difficulties much less than they suppose. What is recommended, is not to attempt any great amount of extra professional study, but always to have some such extra professional study or work in hand, and to do a little at it every day. It is surprising

how the thing will grow upon a man. The main difficulty is in making a beginning. And here my advice is, to begin in a very humble, modest way. Do not sketch out for yourselves some vast, unwieldy, impracticable plan, but just take up any one thing and follow it out with steady perseverance. Pick up a grain or two every day and add to your heap. You will soon learn by happy experience the power of littles, as applied to intellectual processes and gains.—*Mistakes of Educated Men.*

Fruits of Kindness.

MANY years ago a certain minister in the United States of America, was going, on Sunday morning, from his house to his school-room. He walked through a number of back streets, and as he turned a corner, he saw assembled around a pump a party of little boys who were playing at marbles. On seeing him approaching they began to pick up their marbles and run away as fast as they could. One little fellow, not having seen him as soon as the rest, could not accomplish this so soon; and before he had succeeded in gathering up his marbles, the minister had closed upon him and placed his hand upon his shoulder. There they were, face to face, the minister of God and the poor little ragged boy who had been caught in the act of playing marbles on Sunday morning. And how did the minister deal with the boy? for that is what I want you to observe. He might have said to the boy, "What are you doing here? You are breaking the Sabbath; don't you deserve to be punished for thus breaking the command of God?"

But he did nothing of the kind. He simply said,

"Have you all your marbles?"

"No," said the little boy, "I have not."

"Then," said the minister, "I will help you to find them."

Whereupon he knelt down and helped to look for the marbles, and as he did so he remarked,

"I liked to play at marbles when a little boy very much, and I think I could beat you; but," added he, "I never played marbles on Sunday."

The little boy's attention was arrested. He liked his friend's face, and began to wonder who he was. Then the minister said,

"I am going to a place where I think you would like to be—will you come with me?"

Said the boy, "Where do you live?"

"Why, I live at such and such a place," was the reply.

"Why that is the minister's house!" exclaimed the boy, as he did not suppose that a kind man and the minister of the gospel could be the same person.

"Why," said the man, "I am the minister myself, and if you will come with me I think I can do you some good."

Said the boy, "My hands are dirty; I cannot go."

Said the minister, "Here is a pump—why not wash?"

Said the boy, "I am so little I can't wash and pump at the same time."

Said the minister, "If you'll wash, I'll pump."

He at once set to work, and pumped and pumped and pumped; and as he pumped, the little boy washed his hands and his face till they were quite clean. Said the boy, "My hands are ringing wet, and I don't know how to dry them."

The minister pulled from his pocket a clean pocket handkerchief, and offered it to the boy.

Said the little boy, "But it is clean."

"Yes," was the reply, "but it was made to be dirtied."

The little boy dried his face and hands with the handkerchief, and then accompanied the minister to the door of the Sunday School.

Twenty years afterward, the minister was walking in the streets of one of the large cities of America, when a tall gentleman tapped him on the shoulder, and looking into his face, said:

"You don't remember, twenty years ago, finding a little boy playing marbles round a pump? Do you remember that boy's being too dirty to go to school, and your pumping for him and speaking kindly to him, and taking him to school?"

"O!" said the minister, "I do remember."

"Sir," said the gentleman, "I was that boy. I rose in business, and became a leading man. I have attained a good position in society; and on seeing you to-day in the street, I felt bound to come to you, and tell you that it is to your kindness and wisdom and Christian discretion—to your having dealt with me lovingly, that I owe under God all that I have attained, and all that I am at the present day."—J. C. RYLE.

He is happy whose circumstances suit his temper; but he is more praiseworthy who can *suit his temper to any circumstances.*

Ohio Teachers in the Army.

Honorable Anson Smyth, Superintendent of the schools of the State in his recent report says:

"No other class of our citizens has even more patriotism than the teachers of our public schools. One of the forms in which this has been shown, is that of volunteering for the defence of the country. I am unable to state the precise number of those who have entered the army during the past year, but I have reason to believe that it exceeds two thousand. Many of them have been appointed to positions of high honor and responsibility. Two new command brigades in Kentucky, several are colonels, and a greater number majors and staff officers. Not less than one hundred are captains and lieutenants. Of one of the regiments, every field officer and more than half of the company officers have been teachers in our public schools. While the people of Ohio may rejoice in this display of patriotism on the part of teachers, we cannot forget the immeasurable sacrifice which it has cost us. This generation will pass away ere the people of Ohio will cease to lament the death of Lorin Andrews."

Mr. Andrews, a devoted friend of common schools, was President of Kenyon College, and on the breaking out of the war he raised a company and entered the military service as captain, but was soon appointed colonel. When in Western Virginia he took the camp fever and soon after died.

Success.—Every man must patiently bide his time. He must wait, not in listless idleness, not in useless pastime, not in querulous discontent, but in constant, steady and cheerful endeavor, always willing, fulfilling and accomplishing his task, that when the occasion comes he may be equal to the occasion. The tale of success is nothing more than doing what one can do well, without a thought of fame. Success comes at all, it will come because it is deserved, not because it is sought after. It is very incorrect and troublesome ambition which cares much about fame, about what the world says of us, to be always looking in the face of others for approval, to be always anxious about the effect of what we do or say, to be always striving to hear the echoes of our own voices.

A beautiful definition of forgiveness is that of the deaf and dumb one, who defined it as "the odor which flowers yield when trampled on."

From the Connecticut Common School Journal.
What Do Our Schools Need?

Do we need better teachers than we have now? We have many good and efficient teachers. We have those who have spent much time and money to qualify themselves for the business of teaching. We have those who are versed in the science of mind, and understand the principles of communicating knowledge, and who are successful in appliances for the purpose of bringing out the ideas of youth. Our schools are based upon systematic plans. Every department is made to afford facilities suitable for those who attend them. We have good textbooks, far better than were enjoyed a few years ago. We have good apparatus for illustration, so that the pupil is made to see, as well as hear. Our school-houses are generally good, and comfortably furnished with suitable seats and desks. They are made warm and comfortable in winter, and light and airy in summer. These and many other appliances are in daily use in our schools. And yet, with all these, there seem to be deficiencies somewhere.

The pupils, in many instances, lack an interest in the school. They fail to make advancement in proportion to the advantages our schools afford. We are therefore led to inquire, what is needed that we have not already? Doubtless there are deficiencies in some of the items we have enumerated above, but we are disposed to think that the *grand source* of the difficulty lies with the parents of the pupils. We would not aim at anything below perfection in school-house accommodations, suitable books for instruction, nor in school teachers. But while we are making noble and praiseworthy efforts in this direction, and while the teacher is putting forth his best efforts, the parents are remaining quietly at home. We therefore look to them to see what is the reason of this failure in our schools. Do they know? They will say perhaps, that their children are not learning much, and are very ready to conclude that the school is not good for anything. If we ask them what particular the school fails in, they cannot tell. They have never been to see the school. If they have, they have not been often enough to get acquainted with its plans and movements. The teacher toils on, day after day and week after week, and the parents know nothing of what is going on in the school-room, excepting what the pupil may imperfectly relate. If a child is reprimanded for misdeed, or for imperfect recitation, and happens to be displeased, he renders

his own version of the affair, and the parent, in many instances, receives a wrong impression of the school and its teacher. If they were in the habit of visiting the school more—I might say any—they would better understand its wants and requirements. If they would visit the school it would cheer the heart and lighten the labors of the weary and care-worn teacher. And not only so; they would then see the wants of their own children. They would know whether their children were well supplied with books, and whether they were generally in their classes at the recitation hour. They would see that it makes a difference whether a pupil is in his class or not at the proper time to recite, and that it is not profitable to keep children from school to do errands, or to make or receive visits from playmates or friends when they could be made at another time. We ask, why is it so difficult to make some children, who are naturally bright enough, remember a correction in the various things in which they have to be corrected at school? If parents could be in the school-room, and witness the efforts of a teacher to correct some bad habit, or impress upon the mind of the child something of importance in his lessons, they would see that coöperation with the teacher—by saying a few words at home—would do more than could be done without it, in weeks, at school. And how shall they know what to do unless they visit the school? With what profit to their children might they spend a few minutes each day in talking with them? Not to do the work of the teacher, but to encourage and animate the child. What excuse can possibly be given for not visiting the school? Whose are these children being trained for life and its great responsibilities? How many of you know whether those, who are daily molding and fashioning the mind of your child, are of the right stamp? Who, we might reasonably ask, ought to feel most interested in the mental and moral culture of your children? Who exhibits the most interest, the parent or teacher? What are the facts in the case? There is no subject before the community in which parents ought to feel so deeply concerned, and of which they generally know so little, as the affairs inside of the school-room. Wherever there is a good school, one well supplied with every facility for carrying it on well, it has been fought for, inch by inch, by a few who were interested in schools.

Most of the trouble in schools, arising from enforcing discipline, is owing to the fact that

parents do not visit the school. A prominent reason why children are frequently dissatisfied with the teacher and the school, is because they are able to represent matters just as they please to their parents. They give their own coloring to the affair, and the parents feel like severely reprimanding the teacher, accusing him of all manner of unfairness with *their* children. They could not often do this if their parents were acquainted with affairs in school. Now what shall be done to reach this great difficulty which we have shown to exist? To whom shall we look for assistance? As teachers we must devise some plan to enlighten the minds of parents on this point. We must not blame them too much for their present ideas until we have tried to give them better ones. Let us, then, enlist such as are interested in schools, and hold meetings for friendly discussion on the various topics relating to schools. Let us invite the parents again and again, if necessary, to come out and hear, and take part in the discussion. Let us have *lectures* on education. And in fact use any and every proper means within our reach to diffuse a knowledge of school matters.

BIRMINGHAM.

For the Schoolmaster.
Physical Science.

It is but a few years since, that physical culture was thought to constitute a part of an education. We are sorry to say, that there are many at the present day who hold to the same idea, and who look upon its teachers as pugilists, and an institution of physical instruction as a sort of second class circus. We must expect to meet with these opposing characters and with ignorance until the state of education becomes what it should be. It is a mistaken notion that children are born into the world to go to school, or that the most perfect lessons of life are learned in the monotonous drill of the study-room. It is an antiquated notion that the three golden rules of the old red school-house—"reading, writing and ciphering"—constitute an education.

Education is *development*—the harmonious development of all the faculties of the human body to its greatest strength and highest beauty. Some do say, "Leave children to follow their own inclination in plays and sports and they will have physical exercise enough." No one will doubt that children, in general, have *exercise enough*, but it not always of that kind that gives correct development to the body, and lays

the foundation for a strong constitution. Surely the tree or plant will grow if left to nature but we only see them in beauty and perfection when trained by the culturist. It is so with children, they will grow and have a body in some shape, but we can only see it as it should be when trained by physical culture.

In mental culture we recognize the great law of nature, that no perfection is attained without repeated and systematic effort. Mental culture of the severest kind is practiced during ten or fifteen years of early life. Strength, readiness and quickness are the results; but leave the mind to its own aimless action and its strength all runs to waste. The same law applies to the muscular system; yet the boy is sent to school day after day, year after year, to have his head stuffed with book-knowledge that will be of about as much service to him as it would to a corpse. Any body will tell you that sound health and power of endurance are quite as necessary to success as quickness in mathematics or skill in the use of language.

What father is there who would not rather have his son active, self-reliant, strong, and proud of his strength, even if he knows a few pages less of a few books, than to see him with deformed body, pale face and a constitution no as strong as a child six months old? What a more graceful appearance would many of our young men make if it was *natural* for them to walk in that erect position, made so by physical exercise, instead of shoulder braces or an injection of the back-bone, and would not the young ladies increase their charms, while they did their value, if they would make their cheeks rosy and chests full by physical culture, instead of pair and cotton! Many of our young ladies pride themselves upon their delicate form, pale face and white livered constitution. There is a close resemblance between the young lady of the present day, when arrayed for the ball-room or marriage feast, and the one arrayed for the tomb.

The fact is, too many of the little misses are never *girls*;—they are simply little old ladies who never romp, never play, nor ever do anything that will tend to make them as they should be.

Just so long as parents will allow their little daughters' time to be monopolized in drumming on the piano forte, or pondering over some useless book, when they should be engaged in sound physical exercise, just so long shall we look up on a sickly, puny race, whose existence will be known only by grave-stones. S. S. S. S. S.

The School Dismissed.

Behold, abroad

In summer-noon recess, what happier sight !
The glowing children, with their laughter loud
Startle the scented air : and games begin,
Only to end what time the bell recalls.
How the glad foliage rustles overhead,
As if the angels hovered listening there,
Watching the innocent pastimes, like to that
In purity which cheer celestial groves !
The hour goes by, and still the urchins play ; —
Another hour, and still another flies,
Until they deem a holiday is given.
And peering oft where, leaning on his desk,
The master holds his wonted rest, they turn
And look with wonder in each other's eyes,
And then renew their games ! Dear hearts, play,
Your laughter can not break his slumber now !
His hand of dust shall no more wake the bell ;
The weary master takes recess in heaven !

Writing for Children.

It may be safely assumed that an intelligent child will understand any narrative or didactic effusion which an ordinary grown person can. Abstract ideas children cannot master ; in which respect, again, there is but little difference between them and all the adult world, except with the rare few. For men who are intelligent and intelligible in abstract thought, are full as rare as poets, artists, or other men of genius.

The clear style of Addison is a model for juvenile writing. Neither are children so very interested in childish things that they require those who serve them to write *down* to their level. On the contrary, children aspire. They are curious of grown-up knowledge. The narratives which missionaries send home ; the accounts which travellers give of their sights and experiences ; the narrative of any series of events that would interest the parents, will interest the children. As a general rule that is the best writing for children which, being read aloud in the family, is found to be most interesting to the parents and grown-up children. *The Pilgrim's Progress* is the best child's book that was ever written, except the narrative books of the Bible. *Robinson Crusoe* brings together the old man and the child on his knee in one like interest. Scott's poems belong to the child's library, because they were written to the sensuous and practical imagination of men.

The art of writing for children lies first in the subjects selected, and next in forgetting that there is a *mimnifying style of literature* — which,

aiming to be childlike, succeeds only in being childish. The true art consists in writing manly things in manly English.

It is true that much juvenile literature that has established its credit, is clothed in what may be called nursery style. But it has succeeded in spite of its diluted English, and not in consequence of it. That must be excellent material, and very happily conceived, that can maintain itself long in juvenile English.

It is just as important to begin early to give to children a good taste and a sound judgment in literary matters, as to begin early with any other part of their training. School libraries and religious juvenile books need sifting, not simply because a literary nursery *patois* is ridiculous, but because it is mischievous. It corrupts the taste and misleads the judgment at the most important period of life.

In a nation that demands so much of its citizens, in which all are expected to become readers and, to some extent, writers or speakers, is it of no consequence what is the literary character of those books through which children first form their tastes ? The mortuary reports speak of numbers of children annually dying from water on the brain. Milk-and-water on the brain is even worse, for the children don't die.—*Exchange*.

WHEAT A WREED.—It has long been suspected that the cereal grains are but cultivated examples of wild cereal grasses — that were not created as corn, but that they have been improved by culture into their present condition. This supposition was confirmed by M. Fabre, of Adge, in the South of France, who, in 1838, sowed some grains of the *Egliops ovata*, a common cereal grass, and, by successive sowings in the garden soil, produced, in 1846, crops of real wheat as fine as any to be found in the neighborhood. This experiment is now being carried on by the professor of geology and botany in the Royal Agricultural College and the grass is gradually undergoing the same transformation into the true cereal grain.—*Once a Week*.

We lately picked up the following memoranda, which we saw dropped by a young lady attired in an elegant velvet tulle, an exquisite Honiton collar, a white hat and plume, and a painfully brilliant silk dress, with exaggerated flounces : "I must get a Veil, Saroknet, Glove, Brown Hoss, Laise, Shymmezet, Kulona."—*N. York Paper*.

Educational Intelligence.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to the PUBLISHERS OF THE SCHOOLMASTER, Providence.

Rhode Island Institute of Instruction.

ANNUAL MEETING.

FRIDAY, January 31, 1862.

A large number of teachers assembled in our city, on Friday, from all parts of the State, for the purpose of attending upon the annual meeting of the above named important educational organization.

The opening session was held Friday afternoon in the vestry of the Beneficent Congregational Church, which was completely filled by a large congregation.

At three o'clock the Institute was called to order by the President, Mr. J. J. Ladd, of Providence. Prayer was offered by the Rev. A. H. Clapp, who also made an appropriate address, extending to the teachers present his cordial welcome as pastor of the church in which they were assembled, and expressing his sympathy with them in the prosecution of their professional labors.

The President, after a few remarks introductory to the exercises, announced as the question for discussion the following: "What is good discipline in school, and how may it be best maintained?"

The Rev. Geo. A. Willard, of Warwick, opened the discussion. He illustrated the meaning of good discipline in school by a reference to the essentials of military discipline. A good commander is one who understands what is necessary to be done, and makes his will understood and obeyed in all the sphere over which he is called to preside.

Mr. W. was followed by Mr. I. F. Cady, of Warren. He argued that a teacher should make every scholar feel that his teacher is his friend.

Mr. W. A. Mowry illustrated the difference between obtaining good order and maintaining it. Corporal punishment must be resorted to in extreme cases. Public reprimands should never be inflicted.

Mr. J. J. Ladd illustrated the advantages of leading children rather than driving them. The teacher must give his pupils something to do in which their hearts will be engaged.

The Rev. Geo. T. Day made some valuable remarks in elucidation of the subject. His ideal of good government in a teacher, was thorough self-government. He must carry the judgment and the conscience of his pupil with him.

Mr. J. M. Talcott, of the Providence Reform School, closed the debate with some practical suggestions eliciting the results of a wide and valuable experience.

The following gentlemen were appointed a Committee to nominate officers for the ensuing year:

Mr. A. J. Manchester of Providence; Rev. Geo. A. Willard, of Warwick; Messrs. B. V. Gallup, of Co-

ventry, N. W. DeMunn, of Providence, and I. F. Cady, of Warren.

At 4 1-2 o'clock the Recording Secretary read his annual report.

The Treasurer's report was then read and referred to the following gentlemen as an auditing committee: A. W. Godding and F. B. Snow.

The following list of officers was reported by the nominating committee, and unanimously elected:

President—J. J. Ladd, Esq., of Providence.

Vice Presidents—Wm. A. Mowry, of Providence; Joshua Kendall, of Bristol; A. A. Gamwell, of Providence; Samuel Austin, of Providence; Rev. Geo. A. Willard, of Warwick.

Recording Secretary—F. B. Snow, of Providence.

Corresponding Secretary—A. W. Godding, of Providence.

Treasurer—N. W. De Munn, of Providence.

Directors—I. F. Cady, of Warren; Rev. E. M. Stone, of Providence; M. S. Greene, of Westerly; Prof. Jos. A. Eastman, of East Greenwich; Howard M. Rice, of Woonsocket.

The Recording Secretary, Mr. Snow, tendered his resignation of that office, and A. C. Robbins, Esq., of Providence, was elected to fill the vacancy.

Rev. John R. Boyden, of Woonsocket, and J. H. Tefft, of South Kingstown, were added to the list of Vice Presidents.

Thomas Davis and F. B. Snow, of Providence, were added to the list of Directors.

EVENING.

The lecture last evening, delivered before the Institute by the Rev. Lyman Whiting, was a charming literary feast, enriched by pertinent counsel and enlivened by poetic beauties. It is seldom that an audience is regaled by the presentation of fresh and sparkling thoughts so exquisitely adorned by all the graces of style that a cultivated imagination can impart. Want of room compels us to omit many of its more flowery and highly-wrought passages, although we do not know what more acceptable matter we could place before our readers.

LECTURE OF REV. MR. WHITING.

I am aware, dear friends, how sorely beleaguered, beschooled and painfully admonished you who are blessing the world by the good work of school-keeping are. I do know how District School Committees, in blue frocks and quite skyey opinions, bestow on the masters and ma'ams a piece of their minds now and then, and how such Committees sometimes magnify their office by extemporizing most impracticable pieces of advice, perhaps on the last half day of the school, and then in Institutes and Associations. But now, I have not come to add my mite to all this learning already bestowed on you. But, like a school child, let out for a run over the hills and pastures, coming back with hat or apron full of buttercups and honeysuckles, and face all aglow with the ramble, I come before you with this very simple and bashful theme:

THE COMFORTS AND PLEASURES OF SCHOOL-KEEPING. Consider first: *The continuance of personal youthfulness to the teacher.* Intimacy with childhood perpetuates youthfulness in modes of thought, of expression and of action. The fresh hues of young color the character all through in a genuine hearty teacher. The spirit of flexibility and beauty youth fashion and invest one who consorts with those full of them. Intimacy with ever exhaling child vitality perpetuates and prolongs the youthfulness of a teacher. The bard of Scotland finely said:

"He in his children lived a second life."

Every sympathetic, devoted teacher, lives over and over again the days of personal youth by living and feeling with the young pupils in his care. What, all day in Solomon's garden, and not have the sweet smell of spikenard, cassia and thyme! No, the sweet fragrances of blooming childhood who enters with his whole soul into the daily duties of his school.

Whoever would move others, must cast himself into their condition, and then his impulse, ardor, aim, their impulse, ardor and aim. As the bee gets to the flower to suck honey out of it, so the honey childhood is gotten only by going into the heart. It is not carried on the outside.

Another of the pleasures and comforts of school-keeping is *the positive beauty of childhood.* The highest, finest beauty of form, of gesture, of impulse, and even too of visible moral nature, is to be discerned among the unschooled and spontaneous pranks of the school-room. It is a species of studio full of very interesting artists, only instead of marble and pigment, and chisels and canvasses, you have ruddy and rosy faces, and swimming eyes, and passion lines, attitudes, grimaces, expressions and forms.

The highest art is far below a fairly-featured child, whose Divine skill made the face and human art the picture. What famed group of statuary or priceless painting ventures to be childless? Cupid, the winged boy, is the æsthetic partner of Venus—the *amor* goddess. Art dies of barrenness when children are denied it. Niobe, Laocöon, Raphael's great Madonna, most fledged with cherubs, no less than the great poems and orations of choicest genius, all fall from human affection when the little children are left out. Hector and Andromache, Æneas and the boy Ascanius, Rachel and Mary the Virgin, who are all these history if you rob them of the children entwined in their memories.

Just this great field of Art surrounds every teacher. Duty, surpassing chisel or pencil, awaits every turn the discerning eye, and radiates from busy glances healthy children. But richer than forms are the fountains of mind; less visible, but more enchanting. The brother's bravery, the sister's tenderness, the joy and the fire of the passions, the passages between affection and selfishness, the noble and the mean, the resolute and the timid, the love and the hate, in what incessant combinations and outlines are among past the teacher's eye.

In the moral part, too, what refreshing reliefs attend your way—what beauty of impulse as between wrong and right, what purity of judgment, what sweetness of piety often perfumes the village and the city school. Sadly we quote from Bishop Erle, who said of children, "The older he grows he is a star lower from God. He is the Christian's example, the old man's relapse. The one imitates his pureness, the other falls into his simplicity."

The third source of comfort and pleasure in school keeping is, *The pleasing incidents of the school room.* Every day has its food for smiles. Tears indeed only annoy young eyes for laughter. Many a young foible is better smiled than scolded at. To know how much and when to laugh is a great talent for the teacher. It were a greater addition for many in the work than an added quarter at the Academy would be. The witchery of fun bubbling up in a sprightly child must not be scowled back, nor its warm currents smitten by an Arctic air. His life is hid in them. Quenching them quenches thought. These bursts of mirth are often but restless rills trickling down the swells of noble lofty natures, mimic engineers sent out by nature to trace channels for ripper days to be filled with the sounding waters of eloquence, poetry and history.

Kindly recognition always stirs generous and noble natures, while unfeeling, deprecatory spurning only provokes and disenergizes the pupil.

Impulse, motive-power to application, is the incessant demand of every good schoolmaster. This often comes, as in chemical mixtures, from naturally opposite substances. All smile or all frown, like all alkali, or all acid, will only harden and stupify. Put them skillfully together, and what a storm of life.

Do bathe your tired brows, now and then, in streams of flowing mirth. It is only a perquisite of your office. "A merry heart maketh a glad countenance," saith the Scripture; and of all curatives for the wearying and stiffening toils of the school-room, that kind of relaxation gotten only by playing child and being man is the surest.

A painting much told of by visitors in the royal gallery at Berlin pictures a lake whose waters retouched poor, faded, wasted humanity, with the bloom and beauty of youth. The artist was in our track of thought when he set the group of soured, shrivelled, pickle-fed women on one side, and on the other the smiling, exulting, joyous old girls, just waded through the magic waters. Now just such a marvellous lake is somewhere in every school-room. Do plunge in, now and then, dear teacher, and rinse out the wrinkles and acid sobriety.

"Why should a man whose blood is warm within,
Sit like his grandsire, cut in alabaster?"

An eye, and what is more, a heart for the pleasing touches of the school room, softens the labor and enriches the whole nature of the laborer. The play well exhorts any in this service

"To frame your mind for mirth and merriment
Which bars a thousand harms and lengthens life."

Sidney Smith wins my envy as well as admiration

by saying he never was *bored*. No dolt so dull, no pate so empty, but out of them he would get some revenue to amuse, or instruct or refresh himself. Ought he not to have been the School Commissioner for Christendom? 'Tis the unguent to life's best machinery everywhere. The old song sings—

"Jog on! Jog on! the foot-path way
And nimbly leap the stile—a;
A merry heart goes all the day,
Your sad tires in a mile—a."

A final source of pleasure amid the teacher's tasks is the realm of *Hope* which surrounds every child's existence. The exquisite poetic conception of Venus rising from the sea, veiled in mists, is an apt image of every child-life as found in the school-room. It is an Aphrodite in a robe of mists and half-radiant expectations; and who can tell that when the veil is unwoven by the sun's full beams, a God-like figure, a God-like being shall not be left? The hopes and possibilities encompassing every human life at the outset, endow it with a consequence which should bestir our deepest interest. The busy prattler and the droning, silent child, who hangs so heavily upon your soiled robes to-day, may be a bundle of bright prospects and real successes, which, ten or twenty years hence, you may rejoice to sun your worn and stiffened limbs among.

If any enhancements of interest were needed or were possible in this great, joyful, solemn mission in your hand, a glance toward the eternal future—the fathomless nebula, the measureless life to come, which overhangs thee and thy pupils, will yield it. An old philosopher taught that darkness came from "certain stars with *tenebrificos*—dark rays, which shed out darkness as other stars do light." We smile at the ignorant conceit. Yet, though so false in philosophy, it is fearfully true in morals. The stars planted in the moral firmament of, alas! how many precious youth, do "ray out darkness as other stars do light." Oh, to keep such orbs of darkness from the sky and plant in their place the orbs with lustre no time shall dim, which shall go on shining more and more through the eternal years, fed by the Sun of Righteousness—can any joy, any earthly delight exceed that? Is any toil, any care too costly? Such a work, can it be other than a perennial joy and refreshing pleasure to all engaging in it.

After passing a unanimous vote of thanks to the lecturer, the meeting immediately adjourned.

SECOND DAY—SATURDAY.

The exercises this morning were opened with prayer by Rev. E. W. Stone, of Providence.

A choir of about fifty young ladies from the Providence High School contributed very greatly to the interest of the occasion by a pleasing exhibition of the excellent vocal culture obtained in our public schools. The musical exercises were under the direction of Mr. Seth Sumner, who has charge of this important department of public instruction in this city.

Mr. N. W. DeMunn, of the Benefit street Grammar

School, Providence, illustrated some improved methods of teaching arithmetic by the performances of a remarkably intelligent class of some thirty young pupils trained by himself. They executed a variety of Protean feats, illustrating the curious laws of the science and novel properties of numbers. They, greatly to the admiration of the audience, solved with the utmost promptness, problems that would have puzzled many older mathematicians.

At 11 o'clock a valuable lecture upon elocution and vocal gymnastics was delivered by Lewis Munroe, Esq., of Boston. He explained the structure of the vocal organs, pointed out prevalent defects in their management, and gave concise rules for training and cultivating them.

The following gentlemen were appointed to report a plan for continuing the RHODE ISLAND SCHOOLMASTER: Messrs. I. F. Cady, of Warren; W. A. Mowry, of Providence; A. J. Manchester, of Providence; Joshua Kendall, of Bristol; and Rev. George A. Willard, of Warwick.

AFTERNOON.

On the re-assembling of the Institute Saturday afternoon, the room was crowded in every part. The first exercise was an exhibition of the grammatical proficiency of a class from the Prospect street Grammar School, instructed by A. J. Manchester, Esq. The promptness and accuracy of the scholars in the parsing and analysis of the sentences given them, showed that they had received splendid training and really understood the nature of the principles they were called upon to apply.

Messrs. W. A. Mowry, of Providence, H. M. Rice, of Woonsocket and D. R. Adams, of Centerville, were appointed a Business Committee.

The Committee appointed on the Rhode Island SCHOOLMASTER, reported a recommendation that the publication be continued under its present general auspices, and that a permanent committee be appointed to superintend the same, and make such arrangements and changes as they may deem necessary to its continued efficiency and success. The report was adopted, and Messrs. Mowry, DeMunn, Manchester and Snow were appointed such committee.

The Institute then listened with interest to explanations by Mr. George Palmer, of his chart of English History.

Mr. Samuel Austin, of Providence, offered the following preamble and resolution, which were adopted:

WHEREAS, We have received information of a movement towards preparing some monument of the life and labors of our honored and successful coadjutor, the late Dana P. Colburn, Principal of the Rhode Island State Normal School; therefore

Resolved, That this Institute, in appreciation of the value of his services, authorize the Executive Committee to take such action on this subject as they may deem expedient.

The committee on unfinished business reported favorably to the adoption of the resolution offered by the Rev. E. M. Stone, to the effect that the history of

Evening Schools in this city affords cheering evidence of their adaptation to the needs of children and youth in our cities and manufacturing villages, and that the successful results they have developed warrant the adoption of similar schools in all the towns and villages of the State where they are not yet established. Adopted.

The subject of the duties of teachers to their country at the present time was then introduced, and a very effective address made by J. L. Bodfish, of the U. S. Flagship Montgomery, formerly a Rhode Island teacher. Remarks of a patriotic character were also made by the President, Mr. S. A. Potter, of Providence; J. H. Teft, of Kingston; and J. T. Edwards, of East Greenwich.

The following sentiment, proposed by Mr. Edwards, was adopted by the Institute, the vote being taken by rising:

Success to the gallant Burnside, son of Rhode Island, in his expedition.

The Committee on Resolutions reported the following, which were adopted:

Resolved, That in the large attendance and increased interest of the present meeting, both on the part of teachers and the community in general, we recognize a healthful public sentiment and a higher appreciation of the importance of public school education.

Resolved, That the Institute hereby expresses its gratitude to Rev. Lyman Whiting, for his lecture of last evening, on "The Comforts and Pleasures of Teaching," in which he presented an idealization of the teacher's work, of rare insight and beauty; and to Lewis Monroe, Esq., of Boston, for his lecture to-day, in which he set forth in a clear and entertaining manner the powers of the human voice, illustrating by the reading of various extracts, in a manner interesting to teachers and pleasing to all.

Resolved, That the hearty thanks of the Institute are hereby tendered to the citizens of Providence, for the cordial welcome extended to the members of the Institute and for the hospitalities received; to the Beneficent Church and Society, for the use of their commodious vestry; and to Seth Sumner, Esq., and to the choir from the High School, for their efficient services in enlivening the exercises with singing.

Professor S. S. Greene, of Brown University, was called on for a few remarks, and spoke as follows:

I am delighted to meet with so many teachers from different parts of this State for the interchange of professional sympathy and to listen to these interesting exercises. - I am delighted to see the spirit that pervades the whole meeting, and that is the spirit of progress. The main advantage, it seems to me, from these meetings is that we inspire each other with a determination to go forward in the work. By these meetings we cultivate a professional feeling, and that is a great advantage. Though we may not throw much light on the subject which may come up for discussion, yet every teacher goes away with the feeling that his profession is a noble one, and with a

readiness to engage in it with his whole heart. This will be the feeling with which teachers will leave the meeting to-day. We shall experience great advantage during the coming year from the spirit that our present assembling has excited and cultivated.

We never attend a meeting like this without incorporating into our own methods of teaching something suggested by the lectures and exercises which we have heard, without finding some defects which we can remedy. It cannot fail to be a source of light and improvement to every teacher, no matter how thorough his experience. He who is engaged in this work will never regret seeking such opportunities as this to mingle with other teachers, get encouragement and sympathy, and compare notes respecting the management of classes. Every teacher should go away with a determination to sustain, to attend and to profit by every subsequent meeting of the Institute.

After further remarks by the President, and the singing of America and Old Hundred, the Institute adjourned.

WHAT SEVENTY BOYS BECAME. — Many people begin the education of their children with an exhibition of toys, marvelous tales, silly romances, and wind up with the circus and theatre. The degrading influence and sorrowful consequences of this mode of education will be best illustrated by stating a few facts that have passed under my own observation. So far as my memory goes, about thirty boys, educated in this way—i. e., in contempt of all useful knowledge and occupation, spent their days in reading novels, the lives and confessions of pirates and murderers, &c., and their nights in the streets, dram-shops, gambling saloons, circus and theatre—at the age of forty-five, one had been hung for murder, one for robbing the mail, and three as pirates; five died in the penitentiary, and seven lived and died as useless vagabonds about the streets; three were useful mechanics, and the fate of the remainder is unknown.

Of about forty educated with me by a really moral and scientific teacher, under the old foggy Puritanic system of restraint, as it is now called by Young America, at the age of fifty-five one was a member of Congress, one judge of the Supreme Court, two judges of the Circuit Court, three physicians, five lawyers, fourteen were dead, and of the remainder farmers and mechanics, and so far as known not one of them ever was called before the bar of his country on a criminal charge, and they all had comfortable homes, except two or three, and every one was passably respectable.—DR. EDWARD LAWTON.

YALE COLLEGE has a greater number of academical students than any other college in the U. States. Last year there were in the Academic department, 521 students; in Theology, 22; Law, 30; Medicine, 38; Philosophy and Arts 38—total, 649.

Philology.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to HENRY CLARK, Pawtucket, R. I.

LITERARY men or lovers of books are invited to contribute to this department. The contributor will be expected to communicate his name and address to the editor of this department, as above, which need not be published unless at the wish of the contributor. Writers are requested to confine their essays within the usual bounds assigned to the department—two printed pages. It will not be convenient to return manuscript.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Semicolon, Colon and Dash.

I CANNOT more briefly define the uses of the two first mentioned points than by quoting *verbatim* from Wilson—chap. II., § 1, 3:

"The semicolon (;) is used to separate such parts of a sentence as are somewhat less closely connected than those separated by a comma."

"The colon (:) is used in a sentence between parts less connected than those which are divided by a semicolon, but not so independent as separate, distinct sentences."

These two points are therefore similar in their office to the comma. They divide a sentence into clauses and phrases. The comma indicates the most minute grammatical divisions of a sentence; the semicolon marks groups of these smaller portions, and the colon makes much the same distinction as the semicolon. To the colon is assigned other offices than such as the semicolon has, but its general character is much the same. It marks a break in a sentence which, when filled, would require the substitution of the semicolon. And this appears to be its main distinction. Where, however, the sense of a writer can be more clearly displayed, it may be substituted for the semicolon. To illustrate these distinctions, I will copy some examples from Wilson:—

Economy is no disgrace; for it is better to live on a little than to outlive a great deal.

Men are not to be judged by their looks, habits and appearances; but by the character of their lives and conversations, and by their works.

Philosophers assert, that Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries, of which we have not the slightest idea.

Stones grow; vegetables grow and live; animals grow, live, and feed.

To Greece we are indebted for the three principal orders of architecture; namely, the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian.

These show the use of the semicolon.

It will be discovered that the peculiarity most prominent in the colon consists in its preëminent

quality as indicating an ellipsis, or rather a break in the construction of a sentence. Thus, in one form of the sentences following, the semicolon is proper, while the colon is appropriately substituted in the other, where the only difference between the second and the first is the dropping of the conjunction, for:

- (a) Avoid affectation; for it is a contemptible weakness.
- (b) Avoid affectation: it is a contemptible weakness.

A proper place for this mark is, consequently, before a quotation.

Here follow some examples of the use of the colon:—

Nor was the religion of the Greek drama a mere form: it was full of truth, spirit and power.

As we perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not see it moving; as it appears the grass is grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, as they consist of such minute steps, are perceivable only by the distance.

The air was sweet and plaintive; and the words literally translated were these: "The winds roared and the rains fell, when the poor white man, faint and weary, came, and sat down under our tree."

These will serve to illustrate the more prominent cases in which the colon is employed. When used to indicate abbreviation, as it is constantly used in the apothecaries' shops; when used in expressions of arithmetical proportion, or in the Liturgy, it loses its character as a grammatical point-mark, and becomes an arbitrary sign chosen out of the four common marks of punctuation.

Widen the space between the elements of a sentence, or add an incongruous element, and the passage should be introduced and sometimes followed by a dash [—]. The dash is but recently made to take the place of the parenthesis, which it has generally supplanted. It signifies commonly a rude interruption of the sense, and used too freely causes paragraphs to appear disjointed or carelessly written. Almost always, in a sentence properly constructed, the semicolon or colon may be used instead.

I gather a few examples of the use of the dash from Sterne:—*

'Tis for a poor gentleman—I think of the army, said the landlord, who has been taken ill at my house four days ago, and has never held up his head since. . . .

Ask my pen—it governs me—I govern it not.

I believe, said I—for I was piqued, quoth the corporal for the reputation of the army—an' please your reverence, said I, that when a soldier gets time to pray, he prays as heartily as a parson, though not with all his *fan* and hypocrisy.

I wish, said my uncle Toby, with a deep sigh—I wish Trim, I was asleep.

* This combination of colon and dash will serve to illustrate their uses in such cases.

This point is less readily illustrated than the others. It seems to be the point nearest at hand when a writer knows scarcely what to say, or says after he begins the sentence what he did not contemplate at first.

It will be observed that the fourth sentence under the quotations concerning the semicolon is composed of several brief propositions, each possessing the usual qualities of subject and predicate. But it cannot be said that the thought is completely expressed (though the author quoted throws it into this composite form) till the period is reached. So that if the definition of sentence before stated—as “an assertion by words of a thought that is complete in itself”—be kept in mind, this case presents no new aspects; the whole sentence being only bounded by the capital letter commencing it and the period closing it, and subdivided into clauses by the semicolon. Wilson makes a separate rule for this case and directs that “When several short sentences follow one another, slightly connected in sense or in construction, they should be separated by a semicolon.”—R. IV., p. 125. An apparent inconsistency appears here; for in Wilson’s definition of the use of the period he says, “When a sentence is complete in itself, and is neither connected in construction with what follows, nor of an interrogatory or exclamatory nature, its termination is marked with a period.”—II., p. 142. Neither of these propositions is connected in construction with what follows, since either of them taken alone is a complete proposition. But all of them are connected in the thought; since, when the thought is completed, each one of them fills its place and goes to the completion of the thought. It is “the assertion, by words, of a thought complete in itself”; and if that constitutes a sentence, this is one and should begin with a capital and close with a period, while its clauses should be separated by commas, semicolons or colons. Usage and taste inclines to the use of the semicolon, in the case.

I have thus gone over the four principal and more important marks of punctuation, not less to direct the attention of my reader to the admirable work of Wilson, from which I have freely quoted, and to the study of the subject in general, than with the design of simplifying the plan of a science yet too broadly defined to be sufficiently firmly established.

From Chambers’ Cyclopædia of English Literature.
The Origin of Newspapers.

“AFTER inquiring in various countries,” says Mr. George Chalmers, “for the origin of newspapers, I had the satisfaction to find what I sought for in England. It may gratify our national pride to be told that mankind are indebted to the wisdom of Elizabeth and the prudence of Burleigh for the first newspaper. The epoch of the Spanish Armada is also the epoch of a genuine newspaper. In the British Museum there are several newspapers, which had been printed while the Spanish fleet was in the English channel during the year 1588. It was a wise policy to prevent, during the

moment of general anxiety, the danger of false reports, by publishing real information. And the earliest newspaper is entitled, *The English Mercurie*, which, by authority, was “imprinted at London by Christopher Burke, her highness’s printer, 1588.” Burleigh’s newspapers were all Extraordinary Gazettes, which were published from time to time, as that profound statesman wished either to inform or terrify the people. The *Mercuries* were probably first printed in April, 1588, when the Armada approached the shores of England. After the Spanish ships had been dispersed by a wonderful exertion of prudence and spirit, these extraordinary gazettes very seldom appeared. The *Mercurie*, No. 64, which is dated on Monday, November the 24th, 1588, informed the public that the solemn thanksgiving for the successes that had been obtained against the Spanish Armada was this day strictly observed. This number contains also an article of news from Madrid, which speaks of putting the queen to death, and of the instruments of torture that were on board the Spanish fleet. We may suppose that such paragraphs were designed by the policy of Burleigh, who understood all the artifices of printing, to excite the terrors of the English people, to point their resentment against Spain, and to inflame their love for Elizabeth.” It is almost a pity to mar the effect of this passage by adding, that doubts are entertained of the genuineness of *The English Mercurie*. Of the three numbers preserved, two are in modern type, and no originals are known; while the third is in manuscript of the eighteenth century, altered and interpolated with changes in old language such as only an author would make.—[*Penny Cyclopædia*, xvi., 163.]

In the reign of James I., packets of news were occasionally published in the shape of small quarto pamphlets. These were entitled *News from Italy, Hamburg, &c.*, as they happened to refer to the transactions of those respective countries, and generally purported to be translations from the Low Dutch. In the year 1622, when the thirty years’ war, and the exploits of Gustavus Adolphus, excited curiosity, these occasional pamphlets were converted into a regular weekly publication, entitled, *The Certain News of this Present Week*, edited by Nathaniel Butler, and which may be deemed the first journal of the kind in England. Other weekly papers speedily followed, and the avidity with which such publications were sought after by the people, may be inferred from the complaint of Burton, in his “Anatomy of Melancholy,” that “if any read now-a-days, it is a play-book, or a pamphlet of newes.” . . .

It was during the civil war that newspapers first acquired that political importance which they have ever since retained. Whole flights of “Diurnals” and “Mercuries,” in small quarto, then began to be disseminated by the different parties into which the state was divided. Nearly a score are said to have been started in 1643, when the war was at its height. Peter Heylin, in the preface to his “Cosmography,” mentions that “the affairs of each town or war were better presented in the weekly newspapers.” Accordingly, we find some papers entitled, *News from Hull, Truths from York, Warranted Tidings from Ireland, and Special Passages from other places*. As the contest proceeded, the impatience of the public for early intelligence led to the shortening of the intervals of publication, and papers began to be distributed twice or thrice in every week. Among them were *The French Intelligencer, The Dutch Spy, The Irish Mercury, The Scots Dove, The Parliament Kite, The Secret Owl*. There were likewise weekly papers of a humorous character. . . . So important an auxiliary was the press considered, that each of the rival armies carried a printer along with it.

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. CADY, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.

Hail.

A lad of twelve years, with whom I was walking a few days since, proposed a question which decided a half-formed purpose of some six months ago, respecting an article for THE SCHOOLMASTER. The previous night had been stormy; and, as frequently happens during our winter storms, there had been a successive fall of snow, rain and hail, or, more accurately, of sleet. This had left the surface covered with rounded particles of ice, which prompted the question, "Why the hail of winter was so much finer than that of summer?" This question was easily answered by replying that the winter hail, or sleet, is produced by the freezing of rain-drops in passing through a stratum of cold air as they approach the surface of the earth. This species of hail is precisely that "frozen rain" which *hail* is defined to be in the old book, from which I first studied "at the mistress' knee," bearing the very intelligible title, to my juvenile apprehension, of "An Easy Standard of Pronunciation." Intelligible, of course, it must have been, for I do not recollect that my credulity was in the least staggered by it in those years when the young ideas were learning

— "how to shoot."

At present I may be pardoned for admitting the charge of skepticism in regard to the genuineness of such "an easy standard." Such a book would certainly be a desideratum in our schools at the present day, for we find our pupils consuming years without attaining *all* that we might expect from a book worthy of such a title. But, waiving the consideration of its claims as a "standard of pronunciation," the "authorities" forbid our adoption of its scientific definitions, at least in this particular instance; for, according to their theories, hail is not "frozen rain" at all. Hail and "frozen rain," or sleet, differ from each other in several important respects. Hail is formed in higher regions of the atmosphere than sleet, is wholly different in its structure, and is produced by causes which, notwithstanding the attention given to the subject by men of science, are by no means perfectly understood. The manner in which sleet is formed is obvious. The rain, as it approaches the earth, encounters a degree of cold greater than that of the place whence it started; and hence falls to the ground in particles of ice. The case is analogous to that of water falling in frozen drops when projected upward, in intensely cold weather, from a fire engine. Hail also falls almost exclusively in summer, or in the latter portion of spring. *During this period sleet never falls.* Hail, on the contrary, is almost or quite unknown in winter,

and is almost uniformly attended by lightning. Other points of difference naturally present themselves in considering the causes by which hail is produced.

As hail-storms are attended with electrical phenomena it might naturally be inferred that electricity is the efficient cause of their production. This was the opinion generally entertained by philosophers until within the last twenty-five or thirty years. Upon this opinion was founded the theory of Volta, more remarkable for its ingenuity, probably, than for its truth. In hail-storms he argued that there exist two parallel strata of clouds, situated one at some convenient distance above the other. From the upper surface of the lower strata he supposed the process of evaporation to proceed so rapidly as to produce a degree of cold sufficient to congeal the vapor. This would result in the formation of a snowy nucleus. The two strata of clouds he supposed to be in opposite electrical states, so that the snowy nuclei would be alternately attracted and repelled, like images of pith between the two plates of an electrical machine. At each passage from cloud to cloud the nuclei would receive fresh accessions of vapor, which, in freezing, would surround them with a coating of ice: this would continue to increase in thickness until its weight became sufficient to carry them through the lower strata, when they would, of course, be precipitated upon the earth. In France this theory was received with such confidence that multitudes of lightning rods, or rather "hail rods," were erected in those districts which were most liable to be ravaged by hail, in order to draw the electricity from the clouds and thus prevent destruction. It is stated in Appleton's Cyclopædia that an insurance company was organized in France in the year 1829, to protect against the ravages of hailstones, and that the practice of erecting "hail rods," which was inaugurated near the close of the last century, afterward extended into Germany, Switzerland and Italy. Although the theory of Volta was too fanciful to be received with much confidence by men of science, still the "hail rods" continued to be used, with the belief that they afforded valuable protection. "And in 1847, when an application was made to Arago to recommend some protection against 'the hail storm,' he proposed the use of balloons communicating with the earth by a metallic wire in order to discharge the electricity of the clouds, as if this were the cause, and not merely a concomitant, of the production of hail." The hypothesis that hail is produced by electricity does not, however, seem to be sustained by facts, for forests of trees, which might with propriety be regarded as legions of "hail rods," afford no reliable security against the ravages of hail; and in the torrid zone, where atmospheric electricity is most accumulated, hail storms almost never make their appearance.

A more probable theory is that of Prof. Olm-

stead, of Yale College. He regards electricity as an *effect* of hail storms and not their *cause*. He supposes hail to be produced by the meeting of currents of warm air with those which are cold, and that the development of electricity is one of the natural results. Several facts are urged in favor of this view. First, hail storms occur almost exclusively in the temperate zones, where *alone very cold currents of air are likely to encounter those which are warm*. Within the tropics the opposing currents do not differ sufficiently in temperature to produce the phenomena of hail, neither of them being sufficiently cold, while the same result follows in the polar regions, from the fact that neither of the opposing currents is sufficiently warm. Second, hail storms frequently occur in the vicinity of mountains whose tops are constantly covered with ice and snow. Hence we may infer the cause of the hail storms which annually ravage the region lying between the Alps and Pyrenees, and which, by their work of destruction upon the vineyards, are said to occasion a yearly loss of revenue amounting to more than nine millions of dollars.

The long and narrow track generally left by hail storms also indicates the action of aerial currents, a remarkable instance of which is cited in Brocklesby's Meteorology. It is that of a hail storm which, in the course of a few hours, travelled in a double track from the south of France across the country to Holland, forming "Two parallel paths from S. W. to N. E.; the length of one being four hundred and thirty-five miles and that of the other four hundred and ninety-seven miles. The average width of the eastern track was five miles, and that of the western, ten; and upon the space comprised between them, which was twelve and a half miles in breadth, no hail fell, but only a heavy rain." Prof. Brocklesby does not give the date of this storm, but I think it must be the same that is described in Appleton's Cyclopædia as follows: "The memorable storm of July, 1788, passed over France in two parallel lines from S. W. to N. E.; one line extended about five hundred miles in length, and the other about six hundred miles; the mean breadth of each was only about nine miles, and the interval between them, in which the rain fell in torrents, was fifteen miles." For the numerical discrepancies in the two statements, of course, somebody is responsible. The track of hail storms with us, I think, is generally much narrower than those indicated above. That of one which occurred about the time when I shed my frocks and pinafores to don "the manly breeches," and which left an indelible impression upon my childish memory, scarcely extended over a breadth of two miles. It first appeared as a cloud of very dark hue, apparently but little more than a rod in width, rising almost vertically, with its rounded edges shining like gold, behind a succession of ledges, called the Flat Rocks, which crown a high

range of hills with an abrupt eastern declivity. My father's house, situated nearly half a mile to the eastward of the hill crests, gave a view of just so much of the approaching storm, and left just so much concealed behind the hills which lifted up their abrupt, wooded slopes, like a broad curtain, in front, as to give to the scene its most picturesque and impressive effect. The cloud rose rapidly and expanded as it rose. The application of a part of Thompson's description of a thunder storm to its development is perfect:

"Behold [fast] settling o'er the lurid grove
Unusual darkness broods, and growing, gains
The full possession of the sky, surcharged
With wrathful vapor."

It certainly seemed to me that a "magazine of fate" was preparing; for, in its progress, the gathering storm filled me with excessive terror. "The dash of clouds" and the "irritating war of fighting winds" were quite too obvious to my affrighted senses; and when the "sheet of livid flame" blazed overhead, followed by "the loosened, aggravated roar, crashed horrible," and "the deluge of sonorous hail," had it been possible, I believe I should have endeavored to find a refuge in the very bowels of the earth. The next thing to this seemed to be "the dark closet"; and having, "in vain, in vain, alas!" endeavored to persuade father, mother, sister or brother to accompany me thither, I hastened on my way, "solitary and alone"; and closing the door which shut out from me the intolerable glare of the lightning, I allowed the rattling of the hail and the roaring of the thunder to chant a lullaby which soon sent my terrified thoughts ranging in the land of dreams. When I awoke, the storm had spent its fury, but a scene of desolation was spread around. During the storm the wind had blown from the west, northwest and southwest, by turns, bursting one door from its hinges, and leaving scarcely a single unbroken pane of glass in the house, except upon the eastern side. In the track of the storm, which pursued a zigzag course, the crops of wheat, rye and oats were utterly ruined. Indian corn was splintered to the ground and nearly destroyed; the apples and other fruits, together with a large share of the leaves, were pelted from the trees, and other crops were seriously damaged. The hailstones, which were, many of them, more than an inch in diameter, were driven by the wind with great violence. The lightning and thunder were terrific to stouter hearts than mine. Trees and rocks were found rent and splintered by the lightning in several places on my father's farm. When I remember how excessively I was then terrified, I almost wonder that I can now contemplate similar scenes with calmness, and even pleasure. None, however, will deny, on reflection, that such storms are among the grandest exhibitions of nature, and when regarded with a philosophic eye, they are divested of a large share of what makes them dreadful.

It is still a question by what forces hail-stones are kept suspended until they attain their full size, which generally ranges from about one-fourth of an inch to an inch in diameter, though instances are on record, which are regarded as authentic, in which they have acquired a diameter of as many as four inches. Statements in regard to masses of ice weighing from ten to fifteen pounds falling in the form of hail are to be received with some reserve. The theory of Volta, which regards the hail-stones as dancing between two clouds during their formation, would account very ingeniously for their remaining suspended in the air, but, unfortunately, it fails in other particulars of equal importance. Another theory is that, "When the hail-stones are formed, they are also carried along through the atmosphere by currents of wind in a direction very oblique to the horizon, by which means they are kept suspended a sufficient length of time to acquire the dimensions they possess by congealing the particles of humid vapor with which they successively come in contact." Still another theory is that, in the intermingling of the hot and cold currents of air, by which the hail is produced, a vortex is produced through which the hail-stones are carried upward as by a water-spout, whence they are borne outward from the centre through successive layers of cold and warm air, constantly acquiring fresh accessions of bulk, until they are finally precipitated from the outer circles of the whirlwind to the earth.

I. F. C.

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster.
Arithmetical Questions.

FOR A CLASS THAT HAVE BEEN AS FAR IN WRITTEN ARITHMETIC AS INTEREST.

1. Define the terms "science" and "art," and give illustrations showing their meaning as applied to mathematics.
2. What is the sum of the products of the following numbers: 85 and 75, 65 and 75, 25 and 35, 84 and 25? (The products to be found mentally.)
3. Express the following example in its correct form: 20 mi., 20 fur., 20 rd., 20 ft.
4. Write down the abridged characters in the table of English money, (£, s. d. qr.) Under pounds write the number that it takes square inches to equal a square ft.; under shillings the number that it takes inches to make a foot in length; under pence the number that it takes of quarts to equal a peck; and under farthings the number that it takes of pints to equal a quart. *Again, write under your highest denomination the number that it takes of solid feet to make a solid*

yard; under the next the number that it takes of square feet to make a square yard; and under your lowest denomination the number that it takes feet to make a yard in length. The class can now see if they agree, and then find the difference between the minuend and subtrahend.

5. Write a proper and an improper fraction, a mix number, a compound and a complex fraction. Now add your mix number to your improper fraction, and multiply the amount by your compound fraction; from the product subtract your proper fraction, and divide the remainder by your complex fraction.

6. Divide 5. by 5., 5. by .5, .5 by 5., .5 by .5. Add the several quotients together and multiply the sum by 5. 5. SHUNOCK.

Westerly.

For the Schoolmaster.
Grammar.

ANALYZE the following sentences and parse the words in italics:

Good Morning. Farewell.

Whatsoever he bids you *that* do.

Whichever it is it makes no difference.

Whoso thinketh he standeth *take heed lest he fall.*

Light issued forth, and at the other door obsequious darkness entered, *till her hour* to veil the heavens; though darkness *there* might well seem twilight *here*.

What you do, *do* well.

As many as were ordained to eternal life *believed*.

By this habitual indelicacy the virgins smiled at what they blushed before.

Censure is the tax *which* man pays the *public* for being eminent.

Reflect on the state of human life and the society of men *as mixed* with good and evil.

Charles was a man of learning, knowledge and benevolence, and *what* is *still more*, a true *Christian*.

Providence.

s.

For the Schoolmaster.

One Hundred Words to be Defined.

Civil War, Army, Ambulance, Barracks, Flank, Forage, Garrison, Haversack, Ration, Reveille, Tattoo, Ammunition, Amnesty, Artillery, Brigade, Canteen, Capitulation, Evacuate, Holsters, Knapsack, Armory, Bounty, Calibre, Cartridge, Cavalry, Challenge, Armistice, Parley, Conscription, Bi-vouac, Bayonet, Vanguard, Subaltern, Fuze, Esplanade, Carbine, Canister, Bombardment, Ambuscade, Countersign, Embrasure, Ford, Furlough, Manœuvre, Howitzer, Reconnoissance, Transportation, Embarkation, Debarkation, Secession, Fleet, Blockade, Marque, Volunteer, Rebel, Traitor, Smuggle, Equip, Sentinel, Proclamation, Menace, Neutrality, Naval, Confederate, Magazine, Sanitary, Contraband, Scout, Patrol, Cabinet, Secretary, Muzzle, Civilians, Pontoon, Feint, Reserve, Negotiate, Ratify, Allegiance, Emergency, Trunion, Expedition, Repulsed, Truce, Belligerent, Fort, Redoubt, Veteran, Campaign, Colonel, Major, Captain, Major General, Brigadier General, Lieutenant, Regiment, Corporal, Private, Caisson, Victory.

Contributors' Department.

Following contributions have been received
in accordance with a resolution passed at a recent
meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction
at Carolina Mills, for the relief of the
wounded soldiers:

W. H. H. Brown, Gloucester.....	58
Intermediate and Primary, Hammond St., Providence.....	3 25
Miss Mary E. Barber, Kingstown.....	13
Mr. J. H. Tefft, Kingstown.....	50
Miss Mary M. Shelley, Primary, Ring St., Providence.....	62
Miss Maria Essex, Primary, Potter's Aven- ue, Providence.....	1 00
Miss Elizabeth Helme, Primary, Walling Street, Providence.....	1 00
Miss Elizabeth B. Carpenter, Intermediate, Walling Street, Providence.....	1 75
Mr. I. F. Cady, High School, Warren.....	3 12
Misses H. P. Martin and G. Buffinton, Pri- mary, Warren.....	1 03
Miss Davol's Private School, Warren.....	50
Miss A. W. Jackson, Primary, Summer St., Providence.....	1 80
	<hr/> \$89 92
add, Classical Department High School, Providence.....	\$5 55
Lowry, English Department, do.....	8 10
Warner, Junior Department, do.....	5 00
W. Barnes, Carpenter Street Pri- mary, Providence.....	1 16
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Bentley, Pub. School, Hopkinton.....	12
Lillibridge, Public School, Rich- mond.....	40
Lillibridge.....do.....do.....	16
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W. H. H. Brown, School, Providence.....	1 52
W. H. H. Brown, Cham, No. 11, Burrillville.....	36
W. H. H. Brown, Bates, Primary, No. 11, do.....	36
W. H. H. Brown, Cunliffe, Dist. No. 1, Warwick.....	1 00
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W. H. H. Brown, High School, Woonsocket.....	75
W. H. H. Brown, ry, Grammar School, do.....	82
W. H. H. Brown, ck, Intermediate do.....do.....	57
W. H. H. Brown, Brown, Primary do.....do.....	38
W. H. H. Brown, ine.....do.....do.....do.....	40
W. H. H. Brown, Brown.....do.....do.....do.....	35
W. H. H. Brown, Smith.....do.....do.....do.....	73
W. H. H. Brown, Munn, Principal Benefit Street School, Providence.....	3 06
W. H. H. Brown, armington, Graham Street Inter- mediate School, Providence.....	1 12
W. H. H. Brown, nthony, Benefit Street Interme- diate School, (one room,) Providence.....	50
W. H. H. Brown, Davis and Susan R. Joslyn, Ben- eet Primary School, Providence.....	63
W. H. H. Brown, Id, Portsmouth, District No. 6.....	5 00
W. H. H. Brown, Chase, Chepachet.....	2 00

The Past and the Present.

DEAR FELLOW TEACHERS: Allow us to say a
word to you personally. Already another current
year of THE SCHOOLMASTER has passed away.
The past can alone speak for the things of its own,
but the future is before us. THE SCHOOLMASTER
has kept on its way for another twelve-month, with
what success you must judge. It has made many
mistakes,—what schoolmaster has not? It has
many times failed to meet its full responsibility,—
who has heaped their measure of duty? But the
future. Now, fellow teachers, we who are more
directly engaged for the journal are fond of our
leisure; we like to enjoy an afternoon or an eve-
ning at home, with naught save our own peculiar
duties and pleasures to occupy us, as well as you.
We are not calculated to enjoy proof-reading or
hunting up copy to hush the cry of the printer, or
to solicit here and there advertising to meet the
demands of our journal, more than many others
around, and yet we are willing to do all this gratis
provided we may have the assistance and the warm
sympathies as well as the cooperation of our fellow
teachers. Our journal cannot be maintained with-
out the mutual interest and labor of all. Our State
is small, and the number of working, living teach-
ers is proportionally small.
No State may boast of a large interest in the
cause of popular education which does not well
sustain a school journal. Our institutes and gath-
erings of a similar kind will all sooner or later fail
if we allow our journal to die for want of an in-
terest on the part of teachers. Teachers, this is
your journal, it must live or die at your hands.
Which shall be its future destiny? Will you not,
besides paying one dollar for your own subscrip-
tion, act as an agent in your vicinity, to induce
others to become subscribers? What we need is,

that each shall come up to his own duty in the matter, and bear his part of the labor and self-denial. If you love your work, *do not* withdraw your influence from the only direct organ of your profession in the State.

The School Commissioner's Report.

This State report is already before the citizens of our little commonwealth. We have been pleased with the genial tone of the report. It is really "*Mulum in Parvo*." The Commissioner has here the evidence of his faithful inspection of our school system. He has been unwearied in his efforts to shake the hands of teachers, and sit by them in their school-room work. He commends where justice allows, and castigates where stripes are needed. As one exponent of the warm interest which our worthy Commissioner takes in his work, we cite his constant attendance upon *all* of the Teachers' Institutes, within his power. It is cheering to the teachers to welcome the school officials of the State to their meetings. He has in his report, in more instances than one, "hit the nail on the head." Hear what he says of

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

There is a general delusion in many districts as to the qualifications of a primary teacher. Those teachers whose price is small, because their talents are moderate, are hired to the exclusion of others, whose price is higher, because their talents are greater. A spendthrift might weigh out his gold in coarse scales, as if the precious ore were as cheap as old junk or iron; but no economical man would imitate such a senseless procedure. Shall the young minds of our State, more valuable than gold, be put under the control of those who are ignorant of the elementary sounds of the alphabet? ignorant of the simple rules of grammar? and in fine, so ignorant of the art of teaching, as to make every lesson repulsive to their little pupils.

The first point is to provide healthful and commodious school houses. There are now far too many badly constructed school houses in rural districts; the seats ill-arranged, with the scholars' backs against the cold walls; one end of the room heated by the stove to a torrid temperature, while the other is freezing into an Arctic rigor; and not a convenient place for the recitation of the classes. If such buildings were designed to mortify the pride of teachers, and wean the minds of children from too deep a love of the things of this world, perhaps it would be unwise to institute a change. If, on the other hand, the true end of education is to develop all the faculties of children in harmony with a sense of the right and the beautiful, then teachers and scholars should always meet in pleasant, airy, cheerful school-rooms.

It requires a nicer tact, more instinctive talent, to manage successfully a primary school than one of a higher grade. In the latter, the ambition of scholars, and the pride of parents, assist the learned instructor. In the former, the first traces are to be drawn on the unexercised mind of infancy; habits of thought are to be formed; attention is to be aroused to take its initial step; and the interior mental world is to be brought into the earliest contact with the external world; in short, the impressions, then stamped on a child, are the elements out of which he is to work the great problem of human life. A wrong direction then given to his mind may lead him upon a moral curve, forever bending from the line of truth and right.

The several faculties of the mind are not developed at the same time, and a true system of education must adapt itself to this philosophy, by presenting the right studies at the right age. To address a young child as a man, would be as fruitless as to attempt to govern a man as a child.

Memory is manifested at the earliest period. Imitation always rises early in the morn of life. By these two powers, the child learns to read. What an immense array of ingenuity, talent and tact, may be brought into action by a skillful educator of childhood, in drilling his classes in spelling and reading! Then he gives the first and most enduring instruction in posture and gesture; in tone and pitch of voice; in the graceful pronunciation of mingled vowels and consonants; and in the sonorous enunciation of whole sentences. The teacher ought to be a living model, from which the young pupil is to take his first attempt at mental sculpture. The highest success of the schoolmaster can be gained only by constant, earnest and thoughtful labor. When the teacher reads every sentence aloud with appropriate inflections, he wakes the attention of his scholars, brings them into a tractable state, and by constant repetition creates in them a habit of correct and impressive reading.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.

During the present winter, three sessions of the Teachers' Institute have been held: the first at Carolina Mills, on the 22d and 23d of November; the second at Peacedale, on the 20th and 21st of December; and the third at Chepachet, on the 3d and 4th of the present month, (January.)

I feel gratified in being able to say that these Institutes were well attended by the teachers, many of whom, though unaccustomed to public speaking, participated in the interesting and instructive debates, exhibiting no little depth of thought and clearness of expression. No better plan could be devised than a session of the Teachers' Institute, for the development of powers of extemporaneous discussion on the part of young teachers, demanding of them immediate answers to questions about their daily experience, and thus forming in them habits of self-reliance and energy.

Some of the Providence teachers have, at the expense of their own case, attended all the sessions. Very able lectures on different modes of instruction and class-drills were delivered by Mr Kendall, Principal of the Normal School, and by Messrs. Mowry and DeMunn, of Providence.

While teachers have been—according to their acknowledgment—benefited by the various exercises, the citizens of the three localities have felt an increased interest in the cause of common schools. The effect upon all, trustees, committee teachers and communities, was quite obvious. It is probable that there will be several other sessions of the Institute during the present year. I am glad to announce that the members of the society were welcomed by the citizens of the three places with a generous hospitality.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

The Normal School maintains, under the careful direction of Mr. Joshua Kendall, a reputation for thoroughness and earnestness equal to that which it had during the administration of the lamented Colburn. Under Mr. Kendall and his experienced associates, this institution will continue to increase in usefulness; it will widen every year the mental requisites for the office of teachers make them graft high culture upon native tact ripen their learning into professional wisdom; and build up in them a self-respect commensurate with the large duties they owe to the State. Into this hard struggle to overcome ignorance, this institution will send out every year some valiant teachers the picket-guards of the mind, to defend the most exposed positions of our educational forces.

[The Commissioner speaks a word for our State journal.]

AN EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL.

As one of the means for keeping alive public interest in the cause of our common schools, and as an organ of communication between instructors and the people, the *R. I. SCHOOLMASTER*, a monthly publication, is a very important and valuable agency. It is a register for marking the new phases of education in other States. It presents also a condensed statement of what occurs in Rhode Island in matters pertaining to schools, institutes and teachers. I trust that the fostering care of our State will never be withheld from the *RHODE ISLAND SCHOOLMASTER*. The resident editors are Messrs. J. J. Ladd and N. W. DeMunn, assisted by twelve associates. These gentlemen are wedded to the cause of education, editing this publication gratis, thus proving that they work, not for the emoluments, but from a devotion to the cause. Surely, no one can charge them with loving the dowry rather than the bride.

Quarterly Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools, Providence.

PROVIDENCE, Feb. 12th, 1862.

To the School Committee of the City of Providence:

GENTLEMEN:—It is my pleasing duty to report the undiminished prosperity of our schools. The results of the examinations recently made, afford the most gratifying evidence, that in most of the departments of study there has been a very commendable proficiency the past term. In Grammar particularly, the examination has never been equalled. There are, however, yet a few schools that ought to be made better. Either through the unfaithfulness or the incompetency of teachers they are not what they should be. It is true that some schools are unfavorably affected by local circumstances, but after making all due allowance for these, there are schools that might and ought to be better, and it is the fault of the teacher that they are not. There is no more difficult and arduous labor than faithful teaching; and to do this successfully, a teacher must devote himself to it with all his energies. An indolent, indifferent or incompetent teacher ought not to be tolerated in a school-room. The work to be performed there is too sacred to be entrusted to such hands.

The daily routine of the recitations is but a small part of the work of a teacher. The instilling of correct principles of action, the moulding and forming of character, is one of the highest duties that can be performed. And this must ever be discharged with a conscientious fidelity to the trust imposed upon them. The office of a teacher is too often sought after as a means of obtaining a livelihood, without regard to the responsibilities attached to it.

In some of our schools an undue prominence is given to a few studies to the neglect of others of equal, if not greater importance. Penmanship and composition have not in all cases received that attention in school which their importance demands. The ability to use knowledge with facility and effectively is certainly the most valuable acquisition of a scholar. And this ought to be regarded as the highest test of excellence or superiority of pupils in every school.

There are subjects connected with the best welfare of our schools that ought not to be passed over at this time in silence. I refer to the means and measures that are being used to corrupt the youth when out of school. But few are aware of the temptations by which the young are assailed on all sides. But few know of the artful and fiendish plots that are laid to entrap the unsuspecting.

It is time that the friends of virtue and humanity should unite and act in concert, and with a determined energy, till this evil is entirely eradicated. Parents and teachers especially should co-operate in every measure the exigency of the times demands. It is not necessary that I should enlarge upon this subject. All must know and feel its surpassing importance.

Additional accommodations for Grammar school scholars are much needed in the Sixth and Seventh Wards. The Bridgman School is now crowded. There have been admitted the past year 29 more scholars than are seats in the building, and there are at the present time about 40 pupils qualified to enter a Grammar School, that cannot be received for the want of room. The most economical arrangement that could be made, would be to enlarge the Summer Street house, after the model of the Arnold and Benefit street houses. The Federal Street Primary School is also very much crowded. The two teachers have about 80 scholars each. If an additional teacher were appointed to this school, it would afford all the assistance that is needed at the present time. Notwithstanding the enlargement of the Benefit Street house, more accommodations will be required soon in Ward One.

The evening schools, which have just closed, have been eminently successful, more so, I think, than ever before. The Committee secured the services of the very best teachers that could be obtained, and the results are of the most gratifying character, such as ought to convince the most skeptical of the necessity of maintaining liberally these schools, as a part of our public school system. The number of applicants has been more than 1500, but only 1000 could be received into the six schools that have been opened. The average attendance for the term has been about 700.

The whole number admitted into all our schools is 7892. Of these 3269 have been received into the Primary, 2189 into the Intermediate, 2109 into the Grammar, and 305 into the High School.

All which is respectfully submitted,

DANIEL LEACH,
Superintendent Public Schools.

Our Book Table.

THE FIFTH READER OF THE SCHOOL AND FAMILY SERIES. By Marcus Willson. Published by Harper & Brothers, New York.

We have taken occasion to speak of this series of Readers several times, and yet we think the great merit of the series demands a constant notice from those who would desire to see adopted in all our schools such reading books as shall combine instruction in the art of reading with that which will convey interesting and useful knowledge. We have the plan of the author fully carried out in the Fifth Book of the Series. It contains all the variety, both of prose and poetry, that is an essential requisite of a good reading-book for advanced pupils.

Part I. contains a full elucidation of the higher principles of elocution. Part XI. has selections in poetry and prose relating to ancient history. The illustrations in natural history surpass anything heretofore published in a similar form. The admirable system of object teaching has a friend and co-worker in this series of Readers. If teachers and educators will but examine this new series, they will be satisfied of its great merits.

A PRIMARY GEOGRAPHY. On the basis of the Object Methods of Instruction. Fordyce Allen. J. B. Lippincott & Co., publishers.

Nearly every month we are called upon to examine and present the merits of new geographies. They all have merits, some more and some less. Great advance has been made in the preparation of text-books for our schools, and long ago it seemed that nothing more was needed in the way of geographies,—but the improvements were not to benefit the “little ones.” They are too often forgotten in the struggle to advance the older classes, and the study of geography has always been particularly forbidding to them. What wonder when we consider the unintelligible manner in which it has been presented to them. Every new geography has been a step in preparation for the coming of a better day, which day begins to dawn. Children must learn from observation, through the medium of their senses, and we are glad to find this fact made the basis of their text-books at last. From primary schools we would banish all text-books, could we see them furnished with teachers capable of studying and imparting the lessons of nature. Much has been written and said in favor of the object method of instruction, which is next to nature, and the only reasonable way in which to reach a child's mind. As objects and pictures are the most agreeable, so they are the most effectual means of fixing instruction, and we are delighted to see a geography made upon this basis. Technicalities are thrown away. The child is taken by the hand and led forth to look upon the world around him. He sees first of all things his relation to the world; the sources of all his pleasures, and the means given him for their enjoyment. We quote from the introduction: “We live in a beautiful world! We see the blue sky, the clear waters and the green trees. We smell the fragrant flowers and scented shrubs. We hear the joyous songs of birds, the charming sounds of music and the voices of those we love. We taste delicious fruits and wholesome food. We feel the chilling snows, the passing winds and the warming fires. Seeing, smelling, hearing, tasting and feeling are our five senses; nearly all our knowledge comes through these senses. We learn most things through sight; and this book with its pretty pictures and easy lessons, has been made to please and instruct us.”

THE CAROL. A New and Complete Music Book of Instruction and Practice for Schools and Academies. By William B. Bradbury. Published by Ivison, Phinney & Co., Nos. 48 and 50 Walker street, New York.

Here is really an *addition* to the world of musical books. Not simply a compilation from other and older books, but a *new book*. It is a book that is eminently progressive in its arrangement—just the book to awaken new life and interest in the study of music. We commend it to the notice of *teachers and pupils*. It will be found to contain a *fine collection of pieces*.

PREPARATORY LATIN PROSE BOOK. Containing all the Latin Prose necessary for entering College, with references to Kuhner's and Andrew's Latin Grammars, Notes, critical and explanatory, a Vocabulary and a Geographical and Historical Index. By J. H. Hanson, A. M., Principal of the High School for Boys, Portland, Me. Second Edition. Boston: Crosby, Nichols, Lee & Company, 117 Washington street. 1861.

This is a fruit of many years' experience in the work of preparing boys for college, and in the manner in which the selections have been made we see evidence of a ripe classical taste. The selections from “Eclogue Ciceronianæ” are highly appropriate for the opening drill of the student. The selections from “De Bello Gallico” are among the most graphic of those commentaries, and elicit much labor and study into the more intricate syntax of the language. We have the Select Oration of Cicero against Cataline and others, together with those entertaining models of Latin purity, the “Epistolæ Ciceronis.” There are ample references at the foot of the page, which are made to the Revised Editions of Andrew's and Kuhner's Latin Grammars. The former of these works needs no remark. Their excellency has been tested by thousands. The latter deserves a better acquaintance than it enjoys with many of our scholars. This book has a good vocabulary and valuable notes. We have not seen a book of the kind which promises a larger acceptance with our classical teachers than this.

MANUAL OF AGRICULTURE. For the School, the Farm and the Fireside. By George B. Emerson and Charles L. Flint. The former gentleman is the well-known author of “A Report on the Trees and Shrubs of Massachusetts.” The latter is the very learned Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture, as well as the author of several treatises upon “Milk Cows,” “Grasses and Plants,” &c. &c. Published under the sanction of the State Board of Agriculture. Boston: Swan, Brewer & Tileston, 131 Washington street. 1862.

This little text-book has given us great encouragement, since it opens to us the great field of agricultural science, which has hitherto been, in a scientific manner, but little explored. We regard the science of tilling the soil properly as the mother of all practical sciences. After perusing this work, I think the farmer will not drop his potatoes into whatever soil he may chance to have ploughed or nearest, but will put the seed where the soil has elements which are adapted to the growth and nutrition of it. The chemistry of agriculture is doubtless destined to take a prominent place in our schools and colleges. This book is highly entertaining as a pastime, and will richly repay a perusal. Every farmer must seek for some such aid in these days of progress.

We will furnish THE SCHOOLMASTER and the *Atlantic Monthly* or *Harpers' Magazine* for the subscription price (\$3.00) of either monthly.

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The R. I. Schoolmaster.

APRIL, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

NUMBER FOUR.

For the Schoolmaster.

Vacations.

CHEILON, one of the Seven Wise Men of Greece, must have put forth a special effort of his wisdom, in order to produce the following maxim : — " Three things are difficult : to keep a secret, to bear an injury patiently, and to spend leisure well." From his skillful use of the climax in this profound saying,—to say nothing of the presumptive evidence furnished by his great reputation among the ancients for wisdom,—we may infer the hypothesis, that Cheilon, like Homer, Tyrtæus and Plutarch, was a schoolmaster, and had quarterly vacations. For does he not in his third hard thing, give the very sum and essence of what many teachers now find most difficult ?

The old sage expressed a bitter pedagogic experience. I have almost learned to dread vacations, and to deem myself happy if I can get through them with sound mind and body. Other men constantly expect their leisure, either in old age or when they shall have amassed a fortune. But we teachers are periodically idle. The common misery of the retired business man, who finds his leisure endless ennui, is ours four times a year, unless we learn an art which is usually deemed almost impossible. Montaigne tells us that he anticipated great results from his retirement to his pleasant country estate, but that, when there, he found occasion to apply the words of Lucan :—

" *Variam semper dant otia mentem.*"

This "*various mind*" is the difficulty. Our regular work is so monotonous, that we are tempted to look forward to a mere cessation of it as a

great happiness. In spite of my experience, I find myself every quarter beguiled into this vain expectation. It is not that time hangs heavily on our hands, and we need diversion, but the *mind is various*, and intent on a vague, grand purpose, as a whole, while it does not condescend to grapple with any one of the multifarious tasks on which the execution of the great purpose depends. "*Divide et impera*" is the only way to become learned and powerful. Our first and childish glimpse of intellectual or of material acquisitions is of their focal points, which kindle aspiration. But we learn that we shall never do more than gaze, unless we are willing to follow out singly, and with unwearied persistency, each of the convergent rays, till our plans issue nobly in the realization of what had been waking dreams. It is not the star-gazer that discovers the asteroids, but the working astronomer, who scans the small field of his telescope night after night till he knows the heavens.

I am always exercised with a host of such chimerical notions towards the end of vacations, and during the two or three weeks that they are fresh in mind ; and I am gratified to find these *summa bona* of teachers' lives gradually becoming to me less a matter of perplexity and discontent. The *dolce far niente* may be set to Italian notes, which may be played on flutes. But American music should express far other significance, to the sound of bugles and drums. I like better the American style. The good of vacations must be worked out ; the harder the toil, the more good.

This does not look like a solution of the problem, how to spend leisure well, but rather like a denial of leisure itself. In fact, we, by no

means, acknowledge *otium*, if it means *doing nothing*, but insist on *negotium*, or *no doing nothing*. But a rest from one's established business is commonly reckoned as leisure; and this we are far from denying. On the contrary, we esteem it an essential element of our life. The reason why it is essential, is not because it offers rest or relaxation, but because it affords us great help in resisting the tendency to become confined to one way of thinking and acting;—the tendency to become narrower partialists than men with five senses and average brains ought to become. The most important result to me of every term of my teaching, is that it leaves me oppressed with an incubus which it is the paramount concern of vacation to throw off and render me as capable as I was before. Teaching is so trifling a portion of my life, that I do not care to buy its special experience at the expense of the numberless other experiences, without which I shall be a pitiable automaton among men. "Happy he,"—wrote a discontented schoolmaster in the blue days of the last May vacation,— "Happy he who can say *vaco*, I am empty, and yet be full in soul. Mechanical persons, like machines, rust when they are stopped. Genuine persons, like fruits, ripen lying in the sun. It would be fine if every one naturally found new work with each new day. Then we should respect all sorts of human handiwork and headwork, and should become polished on many sides. But after doing the same thing on two consecutive days, we are prejudiced in favor of it the third day, and would rather do it than any new thing. I know grand business men who, out of their element, waddle like ducks; and fine grammarians who, in the street, talk with ridiculous weakness."

Except for keeping that little school, of what avail are you, O teacher, for any ends of beauty or nobleness on earth? That school has not won for you reputation and salary that you should carry off the booty scot free. On all that you have exported thence you have probably paid heavy duties, and, may be, you are now well nigh bankrupt.

It seems to be a common opinion that the teacher is somewhat more apt to wear for himself a groove, from which he cannot turn aside, than men of other occupations. This notion was formed in times quite different from the present, but it has not yet become a vulgar error. Unless the teacher be actuated by greed or necessity, and so mingles a little in the pecuniary speculations, and the manifold ways of

increasing property, he does not, usually, come in contact with even the coarser forms of the material activity of the world, by which the manners of so many men are rounded into the poor outward semblance, at least, of cosmopolitan liberality. This topic is not worth long discourse.

The genuine man is the product of a myriad influences, which flow to him through channels as numerous as the pores of the skin. If the channels are all free, symmetry is the result, and we behold such a man as Goethe, who made it the study of his life to win blessings from things of good report and things of evil report. I should now pronounce *culture* as my topic, were I not chary of the use of that word, which has come of late to carry rather a dubious meaning. I would speak briefly of the teacher's reception of influences, and even of his search of them, so far as these depend on the finding of time and opportunity.

The pupil excuses his failure by saying that he did not have time to learn his lessons. The teacher frowns incredulous. Very probably that teacher, standing stationary where his school-days left him, conscious of accumulated sins of laziness, justifies himself with the same plea of want of time. The plea is valid to a great extent, but will not go the length of covering all the lukewarmness that it is meant to excuse. Ten weeks *versus* forty-two, with all the Saturdays and Sundays thrown in:—in such an amount of leisure, one would think, we teachers might go far towards multiplying our modes of being and thinking. But if there is any deficiency of intellectual earnestness in our profession, it probably arises from inferior stock, rather than from any peculiarity of our work. Earnestness is success. It will not be thwarted. Apathy, deadness to impressions, lack of impulses, this is fatal to the man, though indispensable to the machine. This prime excellence asserts itself wherever it exists, but will not come on solicitation. Whoever deserves to become wise, will become wise;—nay, *is* wise now. A *dilettante* culture cannot find time to read its books, take its music lessons, and learn its French; nor would find time, though it had fifty-two weeks' leisure each year. It is true that the harvest of our daily duties must be reaped in the school-room, and that what we can do more than that must be mere gleanings. But this latter must be done, while we must not leave the other undone. Values are here inversely proportional to bulks.

I offer these suggestions because it has seemed to me that the body of teachers is somewhat remiss in the duty of intellectual progress. The nature of our business offers the presumption that we are of superior intellectual cultivation. It is not of great moment that we take pains to make good this presumption. But whether we know and pursue our best good, or yield our spirits to indolence; whether we respect our capabilities sufficiently to tempt them onward by exercise, or ignore our powers as if they were not; whether we have faith in the soul, or only in prudence and habits; this is a matter of the very highest moment to every man or woman.

T.

Music an Amusement of the Home.

What shall the amusements of the home be? When there are the ability and taste, I regard music as combining in happiest proportions instruction and pleasure, as standing at the head of the home evening enjoyments. What a never failing resource have those homes which God has blessed with this gift! How many pleasant family circles gather nightly about the piano! how many a home is vocal with the voice of song or psalm! In other days, in how many village homes the father's viol led the domestic harmony, and sons with clarinet or flute or manly voice, and daughters sweetly and clearly filling in the intervals of sound, made a joyous noise! There was then no piano, to the homes of this generation the great, the universal boon and comforter. One pauses and blesses it, as he hears it through the open farm-house window, or detects its sweetness stealing out amid the jargons of the city—an angel's benison upon a wilderness of discord, soothing the weary brain, lifting the troubled spirit, pouring fresh strength into the tired body, waking to worship, lulling to rest. Touched by the hand we love, a mother, sister, wife,—say, is it not a ministrant of love to child, to man—a household deity, now meeting our moods, answering to our needs, sinking to depths we cannot fathom, rising to heights we cannot reach, leading, guiding, great and grand and good, and now stooping to our lower wants, the frolic of our souls reverberating from its keys? The home that has a piano, what capacity for evening pleasure and profit has it! Alas! that so many wives and mothers should speak of their ability to play as a mere accomplishment of the past, and that children should grow up looking on the piano as a thing unwisely kept for company and show.—REV. J. F. W. WARE.

For the Schoolmaster. The Teacher's Grave.

Stood there beneath the stately elm tree's shade,
Upon a wooded slope, a cottage home.
Midsummer's rays had ope'd in fullest bloom
The graceful buds, which o'er the cottage door
The Prairie Queen from mid its leaves put forth;
And through the lattice on the breeze there stole
The grateful fragrance of full many a flow'r,
His senses to regale whose watchful care
Had fostered them since first from earth they sprang.
As on the breezes borne the odor came,
With sweetest smile his pallid cheek was lit,
And murmured he, with tones that scarce were heard,

"The flowers I loved, the flowers remember me."

To her, who sat the sufferer's couch beside,
And laved with gentle hand the fevered brow,
Continued he, "Soon, soon the verdant fields
(Of ever living green my eyes shall greet,
And fadeless flowers whose bloom eternal is,
My senses shall forevermore regale."
And still he spake such words of holy hope,
Of heavenly peace and confidence in God,
That as he pictured heav'n's eternal joys,
Its golden streets, its pearly gates, its founts
Of crystal clearness flowing ever on,
Its music from the angel choir on high,—
Though well she knew the golden bowl of life
Was well nigh broke, and that the silver cord
Full fast was loos'ning, yet she scarce could weep,
So great his triumph in this closing hour.
A moment, and his work, his cares on earth, are o'er,

His sorrows, pains, forever at an end.
No more his hand shall toll the school-house bell,
That called from banks to benches mirthful youth;
No more his voice implore the grace divine
To aid him day by day to train aright
The precious charge entrusted to his care;
No more, when they their lessons shall recite,
He'll smooth the rugged path to those who climb,
With toiling step, the scientific hill;
His gentle words of counsel nevermore
Shall point them to the way of truth and love.

Now gathered in beneath the cottage roof
Are those who, when in life, had called him friend.
They are not those who come in gilded hacks,
With liv'ried servants to attend their wants;
But simple, unpretending friends who knew
And prized the worth of him who slept within
The cypress casket on the table there.
Among the group, with saddened faces, stood
The little band of scholars now bereft
Of him who had been friend and teacher too.
Not one of all who gathered round the dead,
But felt the sorrow that their looks betrayed.
There was no call for borrowed grief, no need
Of tears forced out by those who might become
Possessors of rich earthly treasure now.

It boots no man to act the lie o'er him,
Who living had with little been content,
And little had in dying left behind.

As village pastor, gray-haired, worn with age,
With trembling voice reviews his life who now
Before him lies in death's long slumber wrapped,
Each eye is moistened and each swelling heart,
In choking sobs, works for itself relief.
He speaks not of his fame, for none he had
Beyond the little town so long his home;
He names not philanthropic deeds so great
That public press had blazed the gifts abroad;
But many a wretch who asked in vain of those
Who gave by thousands for the mission work,
By him had been relieved with humble fare.
No public place by him had e'er been sought,
Yet faithful to the creed the fathers' taught,
For freedom had his ballot e'er been cast.
His life exemplified his Christian love,
As did his death the triumphs of his faith.
The sermon over and the prayer was said,
Then to his final home they bore him hence,
While touchingly upon the breeze was borne
The mournful requiem of the scholar choir.

Sad, sad are the hearts once so gay and so cheer-
ing;
Hushed, hushed is the voice, whose kind tones
were endearing,
Now, now to the graveyard his body they're bear-
ing,
And we are alone.

How, how shall our sorrow find words for its tell-
ing?
Grief, grief unexpressed in our bosoms is swelling,
Fast, fast from the fountain our tears now are well-
ing,
Our teacher has gone.

List, list to the bells now so plaintively tolling,
Slow, slow, with the casket, the hearse now is roll-
ing,
Give, give, if thou can'st, to our hearts some con-
soling,
For now we are lone.

Soon, soon in the grave will the casket be laying,
Dust, "dust unto dust," will the preacher be say-
ing,
Then, then, if thou can'st, give our grief some al-
laying,
Our teacher has gone.

Cold, cold are the clods on the casket they're heap-
ing,
Now, now we resign to the grave's chilly keeping
Him, him we have loved, and for whom we are
weeping,
Our teacher has gone.

*Cease, cease we to weep, he has gone where no
crying,*

There, there is no sorrow and no need of sighing,
Then, then let our joys be the angels outvying,
Our teacher's at home.

The requiem's note is mingled with the peal
That tolls from village church spire's simple bell,
And faint and fainter grows the cadence of them
both,
Till to the ear in distance all is lost.
Now to the sexton, with his spade and hoe,
They leave the new made grave with all it holds,
And wend their homeward way in solemn mood.
UNUS.

The Useful and the Beautiful.

THE tomb of Moses is unknown, but the tra-
veller slakes his thirst at the well of Jacob. The
gorgeous palace of the wisest and wealthiest of
monarchs, with the cedar and gold and ivory;
and even the great temple of Jerusalem, hallow-
ed by the visible glory of the Deity himself, are
gone; but Solomon's reservoirs are as perfect
as ever. Of the ancient architecture of the Ho-
ly City not one stone is left upon another; but
the pool of Bethesda commands the pilgrim's
reverence to the present day. The columns of
Persepolis are mouldering into dust; but its
cisterns and aqueducts remain to challenge our
admiration. The golden house of Nero is a
mass of ruins; but the Aqua Claudia still pours
into Rome its limpid stream. The temple of
the Sun at Tadmor, in the wilderness, has fallen;
but its fountain sparkles as freshly in his rays
as when thousands of worshippers thronged its
lofty colonades. It may be that London will
share the fate of Babylon, and nothing be left
to mark its site save mounds of crumbling brick-
work. The Thames will continue to flow as it
does now. And if any work of art should still
rise over the deep ocean of time, we may well
believe it will be neither a palace nor a temple,
but some vast aqueduct or reservoir; and if
any name should still flash through the mists of
antiquity, it will probably be that of the man
who in his day sought the happiness of his fel-
low-men rather than their glory, and linked his
memory to some great work of national utility
and benevolence. This is the true glory which
outlives all others, and shines with undying
lustre from generation to generation — impart-
ing to works something of its own immortality,
and in some degree rescuing them from the ruin
which overtakes the ordinary monuments of
historical tradition or mere magnificence.—*Ed-
inburg Review.*

The Adulteration of Bread.

WE take the following extract from an excellent article in the *North American Review* for January, 1862, on "The Adulterations of Food":

"Now the practical deduction from these details is this. It unfortunately happens that, in the process of bolting, very much of the gluten is removed with the bran, and thrown away; and that the finer and whiter the flour, the more careful and thorough is the bolting, and the greater the loss in gluten. Therefore it is that bran has been found to contain, weight for weight, more than fourteen times as much phosphoric acid as the superfine flour that is bolted from it. This excessive waste includes, as we have said, gluten, and hence nitrogen, the most important distinctive elements of wheat. Hence it is that *unbolted* wheat-bread, or the black bread of Germany, is much more nutritious than pure, refined, white bread; since the former contains all the gluten, all the phosphates, and all the nitrogenous compounds, as well as all the starch, while the latter has lost a large proportion of everything but starch. This loss being just in proportion to the high quality and whiteness of the flour, "fancy brands" are thus far from economical for other reasons besides their greater cost.

"When bread is to be fermented, a certain proportion of a peculiar liquid, called yeast, is added to start the process. The fermenting qualities of yeast are owing to, or accompanied by, it is not quite certain which, the growth of a peculiar fungus, the *Torula cerevisiae*, or yeast-plant. This vegetable develops cells with great rapidity, which, uniting end to end, form stems. By the operation of a principle called 'catalysis,' by which a ferment induces the same change in any substance with which it is brought in contact that it is undergoing itself, the dough takes on the process of fermentation. By this process several important chemical changes are induced. The starch is converted into dextrine, this dextrine into sugar, and a portion of the sugar into alcohol and carbonic acid. By the evolution of the latter gas the dough is distended with bubbles, and these are held in by their cell-walls. The starch does not possess tenacity enough to withhold the bubbles from escaping, which office is performed by the elastic gluten. Besides these changes, there are produced in fermented bread lactic, acetic, butyric, succinic and formic acids; some ammonia; a pleasant ethereal oil; and also a greater or less liquefaction of the gluten. Of all these

effects, the only essential one in raising the bread is the production of carbonic acid, and hence of a cellular structure, as it is diffused through the dough, and held by the tough gluten.

"But as it was found that, with flours of inferior quality,—those poor in gluten, for instance,—the tendency of the fermentation was to liquefy the gluten so far that it could not hold the carbonic acid, so that the gas escaped, the dough collapsed, and the bread became heavy, as well as dark-colored and unsalable, it was a desideratum with bakers to find some substance which would prevent these ill results. Both sulphate of copper and alum will do it; the latter is generally used. 'Alum combines with the albumen and renders it less soluble, and by so far arresting the effect of fermentation, in a twofold way, lessens the liquefaction of the gluten.' It thus stiffens the cell-wall of gluten. The bread becomes more evenly and thoroughly raised, and, as a secondary effect, alum renders dark bread whiter. Thus an inferior flour will produce as handsome and salable a bread as a finer variety. These effects of alum often constitute the difference between baker's and home-made bread. With the extreme porosity of bread containing alum there is an excessive production of dextrine, or gummy starch, which makes the bread dry too rapidly, and gives the brittleness and hardness characteristic of the slice of baker's bread when exposed to the air.

"Let us see if the bakers avail themselves of this cheap and unsuspected adulteration. Dr. Hassall, after alluding to the adulteration of bread with rice-flour and potato-flour, which are cheaper, says that a commodity is generally bought by bakers under the name of "hards," consisting of a mixture of alum and salt. One object of its use, he avers, is to enable the bread to retain more water, and thus to weigh more. Mitchell found, on analysis, that the quantity of alum in ten loaves of four pounds each varied from thirty-four grains to one hundred and sixteen grains to each loaf. This may be in excess of the quantity usually employed. Of twenty-four samples of bread examined by Dr. Hassall, *all were adulterated with alum*. Of four samples purchased of a League Bread Company, which specially advertised pure bread, without alum, *all were adulterated with alum*. Again, says Dr. Hoskins, 'As the result of a careful analysis of bread bought in different parts of this city [Boston], not a loaf was found free from alum.' Comment is unnecessary.

"We thus have found that the 'staff of life,' before it can reach the mouths of the people, is seriously injured in two ways: first, by bolting the wheat, which removes from the flour much of the gluten, and the greater part of the phosphates; secondly, by adulteration with alum. Professor Horsford suggests the probability of still other injuries as the result of fermentation, by the changes produced in the dough, and by the growth of fungi; but these are not proved. The use of alum is the only, or the chief, fraudulent adulteration. This defrauds the pocket, as well as impairs the goodness of the bread. By the use of inferior flour, it enriches the baker by knavery. It also exercises a more or less injurious influence on the stomach of the consumer. Alum is a powerful astringent, and almost an irritant, to the mucous membranes. It must then be very poorly adapted to a delicate stomach. After considering these facts in bread-making, we think that one would hesitate long before recommending the baker's loaf as lighter than home-made bread for the dyspeptic. If more perfectly raised it is less nutritious; and we have no question that the alum often produces irritation and heart-burn. It seems reasonable to suppose that the very large consumption of baker's bread in New England has some connection with that generally constipated habit of the bowels which is so prevalent here, but comparatively unknown where corn-bread is eaten, at the South and West. We call to mind one instance of a dyspeptic who has lived largely on alum bread, whose habitual constipation has grown more stubborn with years. At any rate, no one wants to eat alum instead of phosphates, and water instead of bread.

"This is an important subject, and we cannot insist too strongly on the benefits of having good home-made bread. Various laws have been passed, but they are everywhere dead-letters, except in France. Paris bread is universally recognized as the best in the world: it is free from alum. As it is not always easy nor convenient to make good fermented bread, other ways have been devised of raising bread without fermentation, by the production of carbonic acid in the dough, under the influence of heat. All these kinds of bread are to be baked as soon as mixed. Among the more common devices are the mixture of saleratus, or bicarbonate of potash, with sour milk, or lactic acid; and that of the bicarbonate of soda with cream of tartar,—an acid tartrate of potassa. If the

salt and the acid are perfectly neutralized, it is all very well. A still better method was invented by Henry, consisting in the use of carbonate of soda and muriatic acid, the product of which would be common salt. Dr. Danglish has devised an ingenious mode of forcing into the dough carbonic acid in solution in water, in a closed apparatus. But this is not easily practicable on a small scale. The new method proposed by Professor Horsford seems chemically the most correct, though we have no practical acquaintance with its workings. It consists in mixing with the flour a dry, acid phosphate of lime and dry bicarbonate of soda, in such proportions as to leave a neutral phosphate of lime and phosphate of soda, after the dough has been baked. In this manner the phosphates lost in bolting are restored to the bread, and the evolution of carbonic acid is attained without fermentation, and without any injurious secondary results. All these methods are much quicker than fermentation."

THE HONOR DUE TO INDUSTRY.—Every young man should remember that the world always has and always will honor industry. The vulgar and useless idler whose energies of mind and body are rusting for the want of exercise, the mistaken being who pursues amusement as relief to his enervated muscles, or engages in exercises that produce no useful end, may look with scorn on the laborer engaged in his toil; but his scorn is praise; his contempt is honor. Honest industry will secure the respect of the wise and the good among men, and yield the rich fruit of an easy conscience, and give that hearty self-respect which is above all price. Toil on, then, young men and young women. Be diligent in business. Improve the heart and mind, and you will find "the well spring of enjoyment in your own souls," and secure the confidence and respect of all those whose respect is worth an effort to obtain.

THERE are many shining qualities in the mind of man, but none so useful as discretion. It is this, indeed, which gives a value to all the rest, and sets them to work in their proper places, and turns them to the advantage of their possessor. Without it, learning is pedantry; wit, impertinence; and virtue itself looks like weakness; and the best parts only qualify a man to be more sprightly in errors and active in his own prejudices.

THERE is no man who would not be mortified if he knew what his friends thought of him.

From "Education: Intellectual, Moral and Physical,"
by Herbert Spencer.

Intellectual Education.

A final test by which to judge any plan of culture, should come the question,—Does it create a pleasurable excitement in the pupils? When in doubt whether a particular mode of arrangement is or is not more in harmony with the foregoing principles than some other, we may safely abide by this criterion. Even when, as considered theoretically, the proposed course seems the best, yet if it produce no interest, or less interest than another course, we should relinquish it; for a child's intellectual instincts are more trustworthy than our reasonings. In respect to the knowing faculties, we may confidently trust in the general law, that under normal conditions, healthful action is pleasurable, while action which gives pain is not healthful. Though at present very incompletely conformed to by the emotional nature, yet by the intellectual nature, or at least by those parts of it which the child exhibits, this law is almost wholly conformed to. The repugnances to this and that study which vex the ordinary teacher, are not innate, but result from his unwise system. Fellenburg says, "Experience has taught me that *indolence* in young persons is so directly opposite to their natural disposition to activity, that unless it is the consequence of bad education, it is almost invariably connected with some constitutional defect." And the spontaneous activity to which children are thus prone, is simply the pursuit of those pleasures which the healthful exercise of the faculties gives. It is true that some of the higher mental powers as yet but little developed in the race, and congenitally possessed in any considerable degree only by the most advanced, are indisposed to the amount of exertion required of them. But these, in virtue of their very complexity, will, in a normal course of culture, come last into exercise, and will therefore have no demands made upon them until the pupil has arrived at an age when ulterior motives can be brought into play, and an indirect pleasure made to counterbalance a direct displeasure. With all faculties lower than these, however, the direct gratification consequent on activity is the normal stimulus; and under good management the only needful stimulus. When we are obliged to fall back upon some other, we must take the fact as evidence that we are on the wrong track. Experience is daily showing with greater clearness that there is always a method to be found

productive of interest—even of delight; and it ever turns out that this is the method proved by all other tests to be the right one.

With most, these guiding principles will weigh but little if left in this abstract form. Partly, therefore, to exemplify their application, and partly with a view of making sundry specific suggestions, we propose now to pass from the theory of education to the practice of it.

It was the opinion of Pestalozzi—a opinion which has ever since his day been gaining ground—that education of some kind should begin from the cradle. Whoever has watched with any discernment, the wide-eyed gaze of the infant at surrounding objects, knows very well that education *does* begin thus early, whether we intend it or not; and that these fingerings and suckings of everything it can lay hold of, these open-mouthed listenings to every sound, are the first steps in the series which ends in the discovery of unseen planets, the invention of calculating engines, the production of great paintings, or the composition of symphonies and operas. This activity of the faculties from the very first being spontaneous and inevitable, the question is whether we shall supply in due variety the materials on which they may exercise themselves; and to the question so put, none but an affirmative answer can be given. As before said, however, agreement with Pestalozzi's theory does not involve agreement with his practice; and here occurs a case in point. Treating of instruction in spelling he says:—

"The spelling-book ought, therefore, to contain all the sounds of the language, and these ought to be taught in every family from the earliest infancy. The child who learns his spelling-book ought to repeat them to the infant in the cradle, before it is able to pronounce even one of them, so that they may be deeply impressed upon its mind by frequent repetition."

THE LAST WILL AND TESTAMENT OF OUR BEST FRIEND.—A pious old man was one day walking to the sanctuary with a New Testament in his hand, when a friend who met him said:

"Good morning, Mr. Rice."

"Ah, good morning," replied he; "I am reading my Father's will as I walk along."

"Well, what has he left you?" said his friend.

"Why he has bequeathed me a hundred fold more in this life, and in the world to come life everlasting."

This beautiful reply was the means of comforting his Christian friend, who was, at the time, in sorrowful circumstances.—Record.

From the Providence Evening Press.
Lander.

A warrior to his boyhood's home
Is coming back to-day—
Ring out the merry joy-bells wide,
Bring flowers to grace his way!
Let the cannon's throat and the martial note
Send forth a glad acclaim,
And the loyal Chieftain's welcome home
Be worthy of his fame!

Hang out the dear old banner where
'Twill meet his flashing eye—
Whose very breast hath sheltered it
When rang the battle-cry;
Whose valiant sword and stout right arm,
With many a timely blow,
Have wrought new glory for its stars,
And crushed the haughty foe!

Alas! Alas! The Warrior comes,
But not on prancing steed—
He nevermore the cannon's roar,
Nor bugle blast will heed;
No glow lights up his marble cheek,
No smile his soulless eye,
That stout right arm is nerveless now,
His good sword sheathed must lie!

No shouts of welcome rend the air,
No sound the breezes swell,
But the minute-gun and the muffled drum,
And the mournful tolling bell.
The Warrior to his boyhood's home
Comes back in state to-day—
But they who gloried in his name
Can only weep and pray.

Nor rose nor laurel wreath bring now,
But pale flowers for his bed,
The Hero hath been vanquished once!
The lion-heart lies dead!
The soldier's warfare all is done—
Life's wandering marches o'er,
God give him rest, among the blest,
In Heaven forevermore.

High on the world's heroic list
Shall Lander's name be seen,
And Time, among "the cherished dead,"
Shall keep his memory green!
The patriot's heart shall warmer glow
When standing by his grave,
And dearer still shall be the flag
That LANDER died to save.

Providence, March 8, 1862.

L. D. B.

GREAT crimes ruin comparatively few. It is the little meannesses, selfishness and impurities that do the work of death on most men; and these things march on to the sound of no fife or drum—they steal with muffled tread, as the foe steals on the sleeping sentinel.

He only is worthy of esteem who knows what is just and honest, and dares to do it; who is master of his own passions and scorns to be a slave to another's.

Music a Means of Preserving Health.

It is the opinion of our distinguished townsman, Dr. Rush, that singing by young ladies, whom the customs of society debar from many other kinds of healthy exercise, should be cultivated not only as an accomplishment, but as a means of preserving health. He particularly insists that vocal music should never be neglected in the education of a young lady, and states, that besides its salutary operation in soothing the cares of domestic life, it has a still more direct and important effect. "I here introduce a fact," says Dr. Rush, "which has been subjected to me by my profession—it is, that the exercise of the organs of the breast by singing contributes to defend them very much from those diseases to which the climate and other causes expose them. The Germans are seldom afflicted with consumption, nor have I ever known more than one case of spitting of blood amongst them. This, I believe, is in part occasioned by the strength which their lungs acquire by exercising them frequently in vocal music, which constitutes an essential branch of their education."

This is irrefutable testimony, but that which follows is not less so:

"The music-master of an academy," says Mr. Gardiner, "has furnished me with an observation still more in favor of the opinion. He informs me that he has known several instances of persons strongly disposed to consumption, restored to health by the exercise of the lungs in singing. In the new establishment of infant schools for children of three or four years of age, everything is taught by the aid of song. Their little lessons, their recitations, their arithmetical countings, are all chanted, and as they feel the importance of their own voices when joined together, they emulate each other in the power of vociferating. The exercise is found to be very beneficial to their health. Many instances have occurred of weakly children, of two, three and four years of age, who could scarcely support themselves, having become robust and healthy by the constant exercise of the lungs. These results are perfectly philosophical. Singing tends to expand the chest, and thus increases the activity of the vital organs."—*Fitzgerald's Report on Music in the Philadelphia Public Schools.*

A young lady recently married a farmer, and on visiting the cow-house, asked the servant, "Which cow is it that gives the buttermilk."

From the Ohio Educational Monthly.
• Hints to Teachers.

BY M. F. COWDERY.

"Covet Earnestly the Best Gifts."

IN the order of Providence, some gifts have been distributed to you. A portion of these have been given to service in your profession. You must bring all you have to your honored calling, and still you will need more. Nothing less than the "best gifts," should content you. See how the seeds of evil in the young are everywhere springing up around you, as under a tropical sun, with astonishing luxuriance. "And from every seed of evil thus allowed to flourish, there will come a harvest which mankind must reap." And not only must there be one harvest of thorns, one harvest of lamentations and sorrows, but the seeds are to be sown again and again, the multiplied harvests again and again to mature, perhaps to remotest time, possibly over the farthest regions of the earth.

When you reflect how grand is the mission of suppressing evil and implanting good in the young, when you remember, that even through your feeble instrumentality, streams of blessedness may flow gently down the tide of future ages, widening and deepening as they advance, how will you buckle on your armor for life's great contest, how joyfully will you seek the front ranks of the moral conflict, how "*earnestly*" will you "*covet the best gifts*"!

But will gifts be received simply by coveting them? Will there be such a re-distribution that those now having one talent may have five, and two, may have ten, if *they* "*covet*" them? Not precisely so, and yet one may *become* five and two may *become* ten. The new supply is to come, not through an original new creation, or new distribution, but through additions and multiplications of what you already possess. By the faithful use of present gifts, these self-same powers are to stretch outward and upwards towards infinity.

But what are to be regarded as "*best gifts*" for the teacher?

Are you profoundly impressed with the value of this life as a season of labor, as a period of warfare with evil, as an opportunity for performing such deeds of love and mercy as shall bring peace on earth and rapture even in heaven? Then you are already in possession of one of the "*best gifts*" to men. Count *right views of life and duty, among your choicest treasures.*

Second, do you see in the teacher's calling such attractiveness as no other calling presents, — such a field for useful labor as shall cause you to love it, to honor it, to revere it, — a profession worthy of all the affection, all the zeal, all the talents, all the "glory and honor" you can bring into it, *and a thousand fold more?* then are you already in possession of another of the "*best gifts*" for a teacher. Just, enlightened views of your calling, are gifts early and always to be coveted.

Third, after your toilsome preparation to be greatly useful, with your chastened and refined enthusiasm to honor your calling, can you cheerfully, *joyfully* labor among a few little children, in some obscure neighborhood or sub-district, — your field scarcely a point on the earth's surface, your influence seemingly a mere speck on the great ocean of life, — if this at any time should seem to be duty? Can you constantly remember, that the Great Teacher, when on earth, did not need a high position or a refined assembly to stimulate Him to effort — that His affections, His labors, were with the lowly? Then may you rejoice that you have another of the choicest gifts already in your possession. A true spirit of humility, a cheerful submission to the dispensations and inscrutable purposes of an overruling Providence, must never be omitted in a collection of rich gifts for a teacher.

Fourth, but even with these inexpressibly valuable gifts in your possession, your sensibilities will soon and often be pained that some form of vice confronts you, resisting your best directed efforts, starring you unblushingly in the face, never less ashamed than while receiving your strongest rebukes. What are you to do? You need still more of the "*best gifts*," do you not? Well, if you would extend your dominion over wrong and evil, you must yourself be stronger in virtue. You must let your "*secret soul*" witness how grandly you can *obey* the great law of duty, and the world shall some day see with what serene authority you can *command* its observance. And, please ever to remember, that the ability to restrain vice in others, by moral influences alone, is one of the choicest gifts vouchsafed to mortals. Seek it, where only it is to be found, in true obedience to God. Covet it more than hidden treasure.

But, fifth, will not varied acquirements in knowledge and a cultivated taste be of essential value to those who have the miniature orators, poets, statesmen and scholars of the nation to instruct? Very truly. But to these attain-

ments the path is plain and open to all. Patient industry,—the steady process of accretion that builds the ant-heap or the coral reef, may make the teacher the peer of any scholar in the land. If the riches of learning, blended with a polished taste, attract you, "covet," labor and possess them.

But there is another gift of inestimable value to the teacher, which those of scholarly refinement are often in danger of overlooking, and those of slender culture are often incapable of seeing or appreciating. It is the ability, *the true professional skill*, that invests every subject to be studied or taught, every duty to be performed, every arrangement of the school-room and its labors, with attractiveness for the young. Carefully observing that ever-varying line, where the teacher should work for the pupil and the pupil should work for himself, carefully studying what makes up the sum of the enjoyments and the sum of the trials of childhood, the true teacher makes his school-room, not only a place of instruction, a place of labor, a place for duty to be learned, but a place of continued satisfaction and delight.

If there is a place on earth, away from the family circle, that should be a region of perpetual sunshine, that place is the school-room. If, away from the endearments of parental love, innocence and purity may enjoy any earthly sympathy, any earthly encouragement, any earthly guardianship, that place should be the school-room. If any labors, any duties, any untried tasks in this life, are ever to be undertaken with alacrity and carried forward with cheerfulness, that place should be the school-room. And if there are to be any memories, besides those of a loving home, that are to be cherished with a fond and sacred affection to the latest moments of life, they should be the memories of the school-room.

But this rare gift, the ability to make the school-room a place of the richest and sweetest attraction to children, comes only by the most "earnest coveting," united with long-continued labor and watchfulness. And, in order to its constant culture, the teacher must be continually comparing his attainments with some high standard of professional skill. And if such real standards are too rare for constant reference, imaginary ones must be taken.

To aid in estimating the value of present attainments and of acquiring greater skill in future, perhaps the following hints may not be *unprofitable*:

You now excel in teaching reading, do you? You were selected for your present position by the superintendent or school committee, partly on account of this accomplishment? It is your uniform habit to prepare yourself *well* for each reading exercise long before the hour, perhaps the day, of its occurrence! Your pupils look forward to the reading hour, with much pleasure and interest? And your fellow teachers often visit your room to hear how tastefully and spiritedly your classes read? Well, *very* well. Try your professional standing as a teacher of arithmetic, as a disciplinarian, as an instructor in moral duties, by the same standard. Subject all your excellencies *and all your infirmities*, to frequent honest tests, and you will ever be learning what professional gifts you will need most earnestly "to covet."

For the Schoolmaster.
The Dying Swan's Song.

It has been said, "The Swan when dying
sings her sweetest song."

WHERE the proud golden sun glows rich and bright,
And the firmament boasteth a dazzling light,
Where the myrtle smiles in its sunny glee,
And gaily frolics the blithesome honey-bee,
Where fair groves of orange and palm-tree wave,
And brooklets the frail lily-plants softly lave,
There forth from a cool and still, shady dell
Pealed sadly a sound like a funeral bell.

I listened, and lo, on the soft-sighing gale,
There floated a dying swan's dirge-like wail;
Where the tall pines quiver and dark cedars moan
Swelled forth this elegy sadly and lone:
"Oh Earth! thou art lovely, thy deep-rolling seas,
Thy silver-sweet zephyrs and organ-toned breeze,
Thy beauteous choir within nature's fair cells,
Echo ever sweet tones like clear vesper-bells,
But there steal notes of change o'er Harmonia's
lyre,
And death-angels walk 'mid the sweet wood-land
choir.

"There is sorrow around, and change and decay,
Earth's brightest scene whispereth, *passing away*,
The pure stars move on in their courses of light
And pensively sing of time's silent flight;
The rose-bud fades on the loveliest day,
There's a thrill of grief in the merriest lay;
There is joy and beauty, and all things are fair,
But there's hidden beneath the dark chalice of
care.

I'll haste from this land and with my last breath
I'll hail with glad song the messenger, Death.
He cometh, and now on my feeble sight
There falleth a dim and uncertain light.

die! yet to Him who ordained my short life
raise my last song with thanksgiving rife."
Where the tall pines quiver and dark cedars moan
welled forth the requiem sadly and lone,
like the mournful tones of a muffled lute,
quivered, grew fainter and soon all was mute.

For the Schoolmaster.
Culture-Ridden People.

[The following is an extract from a composition written by a young lady in the Providence High School.—Ed.]

"The end of culture is to give breadth, symmetry and even-balance to character. And in proportion as a person possesses these characteristics, he is genial, open-hearted, loving each of his fellow-men as his brother. The infallible test for the genuineness of one's intellectual training, is to see whether it has given him a clue, a point of sympathy with every character, or whether it has isolated him in a fancied superiority from the greater portion of humanity. The culture-ridden people are a curious, and not altogether uninteresting, class of beings. We have heard of a disease in which the patient turns round and continues to spin slowly on one spot. They seem to be affected by a metaphysical varioloid of this malady, and forever revolve round the one idea of 'culture.' They are narrowly broad, and prate unceasingly of breadth, but their breadth is one which excludes all narrowness, while genuine breadth, of a necessity, comprehends all narrowness. They have learned to omit from their conversation 'got' and 'aint,' and account themselves of purer diction than those who have not. They do not altogether hold themselves aloof from the 'uncultivated,' but study human nature in them, patronize them, and read character. They have forgotten that true culture not only teaches breadth and depth and insight, but gleams with the gold of the Golden Rule.

"We have noticed that the culture-ridden people are far more numerous among women than among men. It argues ill for womanhood.

"When the poetry which you read makes you see less instead of more to love, less instead of more of poetic beauty in the life of your neighbor who has a face like red dough and eats onions, then beware! When the exquisite iciness into which you have schooled your expression and pronunciation makes you feel less of beauty and truth in the unvarnished phrase of the lowly one whom you meet, then beware! When your knowledge of books, your little, hard-earned acquaintance and taste in art makes you feel that you are rather more than others, instead of one of God's fallible men or women, then beware,—for your evil days are at hand."

From the New Hampshire Journal of Education.
Keeping Up the Interest.

WERE I required to give a rule in four words for exciting an interest in school duties, it would be this: *keep each mind employed.*

Much may be accomplished by oral instruction; but hard study on the part of the pupil is necessary to mental vigor. Children should be taught ideas, not merely to commit to memory a confused mass of words, without connection or sense, or learn answers to questions contained in books. Too many "complete their education" without learning how to study.

Emulation should be encouraged, so far as is consistent with harmony and good feeling; but, remember, emotions of envy and jealousy are easily excited in the youthful mind. Prizes are sometimes distributed by vote of the school. This accords perfectly with the republican spirit of our age. It is well to award prizes for amiable deportment towards teachers and playmates, as well as for good lessons.

Teachers are often troubled to find suitable employment for the infant portion of their schools. People are beginning to believe that children under six years of age, can best be instructed at home. Many, however, continue to send such little ones to school,—“it is so much trouble to teach them,” “so convenient to feel that they are taken care of.” If they come, let us take care of them. When the weather will admit of it they can, for the greater part of the time, employ themselves to the best advantage under a shade tree; but when obliged to confine them within doors, we should contrive to make their imprisonment as agreeable as possible. A slate and pencil, with small drawing cards or figures on the blackboard for them to imitate, answer a very good purpose. At all events, we must keep them busied, or they will give us plenty of business.

It is important that every association connected with school should be pleasing. The reading exercise, which is often a lifeless repetition of what has been read many times before, may be made full of interest. A little monthly periodical, entitled, *The Student and Schoolmate*, is extensively used as a school-reader. It is full of instruction and amusement, and children are delighted with it. Suppose a class subscribe for it: let all the numbers be kept through the month, in the hands of the teacher. Before reading, each member of the class is required to study carefully the article selected for the lesson, and, by the use of a dictionary, ascertain the meaning of every word not fully comprehended. No pupil should read a new piece until he can properly read, spell and define any word in the old lesson.

The old method of spelling senseless columns of words should be abolished. We have all seen those who could, parrot-like, spell page after page without “missing,” and, yet, in writing, would misspell every fourth word.

Children ought, for several reasons, to learn writing quite young: 1st, Because it is the best way ever yet invented to teach spelling; 2d, That they may write sentences, and thus learn something of composition before they are

old enough to feel diffident about it; 3d, Because it pleases them exceedingly.

The faithful teacher makes the duller studies interesting. His heart is in the work. Every item of foreign news, amusing anecdote applicable to certain lessons, ancient and modern history, are carefully treasured to give variety and life to recitations. Singing at the close of school inspires a kindly social feeling, and drowns the cares and vexations of the day. If music is taught in school, let the instruction be given at some fixed other hour. Then, at night join in some favorite tune, and let all sing as well as they can. Even the little lisper will soon catch the sounds, if he don't the language. Those unfortunate teachers who cannot sing need not despair, for they may have scholars who can. So, let all our schools be singing-schools. We should not wholly disregard the amusements of our pupils. An occasional pic-nic, enjoyed with other schools, a pleasure excursion on a fine holiday, a meeting with them on a clear evening to point out the planets and constellations,—all throw a golden tinge over school-days, and make impressions as enduring as the mind.

Monadnock from Wachusett.

BY JOHN G. WHITTIER.

I would I were a painter, for the sake
Of a sweet picture, and of her who led,
A fitting guide, with light but reverent tread,
Into that mountain mystery! First a lake
Tinted with sunset; next the wavy lines
Of far receding hills; and yet more far,
Monadnock lifting from his night of pines
His rosy forehead to the evening star.
Beside us, purple-zoned, Wachusett said
His head against the West, whose warm light made
His aureole; and o'er him, sharp and clear,
Like a shaft of lightning in mid launching stayed,
A single level cloud-line shone upon
By the fierce glances of the sunken sun,
Menaced the darkness with its golden spear!
So twilight deepened round us. Still and black
The great woods climbed the mountain at our back;
And on their skirts, where yet the lingering day
On the shorn greenness of the clearing lay,
The brown old farm-house like a bird's nest hung.
With home-life sounds the desert air was stirred;
The bleat of sheep along the hill we heard,
The bucket plashing in the cool, sweet well,
The pasture-bars that clattered as they fell;
Dogs barked, fowls fluttered, cattle lowed; the gate
Of the barn-yard creaked beneath the merry weight
Of sun-brown children, listening while they swung,
The welcome sound of supper call to hear;
And down the shadowy lane, in tinklings clear,
The pastoral curfew of the cow-bell rung.
Thus soothed and pleased, our backward path we took
Praising the farmer's home. He only spoke,
Looking into the sunset o'er the lake,
Like one to whom the far-off is most near:
"Yes, most folks think it hath a pleasant look;
I love it for my good old mother's sake,
Who lived and died here in the peace of God!"
The lesson of his words we pondered o'er,
As silently we turned the Eastern flank
Of the mountain, where its shadow deepest sank,
Doubling the night along our rugged road:
We felt that man was more than his abode,—
The inward life than Nature's raiment more;
And the warm sky, the sundown-tinted hill,
The forest and the lake, seemed dwarfed and dim
Before the saintly soul, whose wisdom will
Meekly in the Eternal footsteps trod,
Making her homely toil and household ways
An earthly echo of the song of praise
Swelling from angel lips and harps of seraphim!

—*Atlantic Monthly* for April.

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. CADY, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.
The Monitor.

IN the year 1836, the celebrated French astronomer, Arago, was invited to witness the action of a mechanical invention by an ingenious fellow-countryman. After observing it for a time, he turned to the inventor and, with a quiet air, said: "My friend, if your invention was absurd, I would go and say nothing; but no, the principle is right, the invention is great, and I say, if you have a family whose happiness depends upon your success in life, or if you do not feel in yourself the faith and strength of a martyr, sell your machine for old iron and look for a situation in a counting-house." The invention was an atmospheric engine, by Mr. Franchot, for which he had obtained a patent. But—*all honor to the spirit of true genius!*—the gifted inventor did not heed the advice, but, as far as we know, he is still struggling, as true genius alone dare struggle, toward the realization of his purpose.

It seems unfortunate that genius must be doomed ever to labor on amid obstacles and discouragement, and to be rewarded with obloquy and contempt when it most feels the need of sympathy and aid. A remarkable chapter would be that which should adequately record the yearnings and denials, the wants and pains and wrongs of those whose labors have most blessed mankind, and whose greatest crime was that of living an age in advance of the plodding throngs by whom they were surrounded. Let genius, however, congratulate itself that it can work successfully in its own light, and derive from itself, as it were, the vital power that can breathe the breath of life into its creations. One of the most gifted and successful of the scientific men of the present age, with no less truth than poetic beauty, has described "The living Sons of Genius" as

"The immortal children of an unborn age."

But I forget that I am not about to write a dissertation upon the struggles of unrewarded genius, or upon genius receiving a late though glorious reward.

Franchot was not the first person to employ heated air as a motive power. It is stated that the records of the United States Patent Office record attempts of this kind as early the year

1796, from which time to the present efforts have been constantly put forth having the same end in view. Among those whose efforts have been most persevering and successful is one whose name — contrary to the common lot — bids fair to gain a world-wide reputation in his own lifetime, from his success as the inventor of an entirely new style of marine war craft, of which the Monitor, which acted its part so admirably in the late contest at the mouth of James river, is a specimen. As this invention seems likely to revolutionize the war marine of all civilized nations, a description of its structure is worthy of special attention. But, as it promises such triumphant success, it seems not to be amiss to notice some of the steps by which its inventor became fitted for its achievement.

For nearly thirty years past the chief efforts of Mr. Ericsson have been directed to the same end as those of M. Franchot, whom he preceded by three years in his invention, having accomplished his "long-cherished project of a caloric engine" in 1833. The expectations of its success were high among scientific men, so much so that such men as Dr. Lardner and Prof. Faraday were ready to manifest their confidence in its success, by giving lectures in explanation of the principles of its construction. The high temperature required by the first model, which was of five horse power, so affected its action as to render it unfit for practical purposes.

Meanwhile the ingenious Swede directed his attention to navigation, "the result of which was the invention of the propeller, and of that new arrangement of the steam machinery in ships of war which has revolutionized the navies of the world." Failing to secure the favorable attention of the British Admiralty to his inventions, he directed his attention to the United States, where, through the influence of Capt. R. F. Stockton, of the United States Navy, he met with better success.

Toward the close of February, 1863, the first steamship having her machinery below the water line, and hence out of the reach of the shot of an enemy, passed out of the harbor of New York. The weather was very unfavorable, so that she did not reach Alexandria until the expiration of seventy-three hours. During this time her engines were in incessant motion, with a consumption of coal amounting to but five tons in twenty-four hours. This was the ship-of-war Princeton, a vessel of two thousand tons burthen, which Mr. Ericsson had constructed, in accordance with a contract, and equipped with caloric engines, under the patronage and

encouragement of his new American friends. It excited the highest expectations. The President of the United States, heads of departments, naval officers, foreign ministers and throngs of citizens visited it while in the harbor of Alexandria; and so universal was the decision in its favor that the Secretary of the Navy recommended to Congress the passage of a resolution authorizing Mr. Ericsson to construct for the government a frigate of two thousand tons, to be propelled by caloric engines, and to appropriate the sum of five hundred thousand dollars to enable him to carry the resolution into effect. Owing to the pressure of business toward the close of the session the resolution failed of adoption. Mr. Ericsson did not succeed with his caloric engines in propelling vessels with sufficient speed to satisfy the demands of commerce; but for several years he has been engaged in making such improvements in their construction as to render them the most convenient and economical form of power available for many purposes of great practical importance. For driving printing presses, pumping water at railway stations and on board ships, raising grain and merchandize, ginning cotton, crushing sugar cane, discharging cargoes, and even for some domestic uses, they have been found to serve an admirable purpose. In the Annual of Scientific Discovery for 1861, it is stated, upon reliable authority, that one of these engines performs the labor of four men at an expense of less than one cent per hour, and that another performs the labor of five men "at a cost of eleven cents per day." A large number of daily papers in the United States are now printed by these engines, and so popular has their use, for various purposes, become in the island of Cuba that the erection of any other kind of engine on the island has been prohibited by the governor. Several large machine shops in Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Rochester, Newark, and other places, are engaged in the manufacture of caloric engines of varying degrees of power, under licenses from the inventor. One of these is mentioned which occupies less than a cubic foot of space, and which yet exerts a greater power than can be put forth by an able-bodied man. This is heated by gas, and is employed in pumping, "and raises three hogsheads per hour to an elevation of five feet." Such is the safety, economy and efficiency of these engines for multitudes of uses, that in their present state of perfection, they have come to be uniformly regarded as a "decided success."

But Mr. Ericsson, as we have previously indicated, seems to be winning his brightest laurels, as well as those which are destined most permanently to retain their freshness, by his success in constructing vessels of war, of which the Monitor, that has just performed such signal service, is the first specimen. We copy the following description of it from the *Providence Evening Press* of March 11th:

"The hull is sharp at both ends, and instead of the gradual curve of a cutwater, the bow projects, and coming to a point at an angle of eighty degrees, the sides, instead of the ordinary bulge, incline at an angle of about fifty-one degrees to the vertical line. The hull is flat-bottomed, six feet six inches in depth, and built quite light of three inch iron. It is one hundred and twenty-four feet long, and thirty-four feet wide at the top.

"Resting on this is another, or upper hull, also flat-bottomed, with perpendicular sides and pointed ends. It is forty-one feet and four inches wide, so that it juts over the lower hull on each side three feet and seven inches. It is one hundred and seventy-four feet long, thus extending twenty-five feet beyond the hull at each end. The sides are five feet high, and when in fighting order the lower hull will be entirely immersed, and the upper one sunk three feet and six inches, thus leaving but eighteen inches, both fore and aft, above water, the latter drawing ten feet of water. The sides of this upper hull are composed of an inner guard of iron; outside of this is a strongly fastened wall of white oak, thirty inches thick, and covered with an iron armor six inches in thickness. The bottom of this vessel is joined to the hull, so that the interior is open to the bottom, as in a sloop. The deck comes flush with the top of the upper hull, and is bomb-proof. First is a frame of oak beams, ten inches square and twenty-six inches apart, covered with eight inch plank, and protected with two layers of iron, each an inch thick. There will be no railway or bulwark of any kind above the deck.

"The ends of the upper vessel projecting over the hull both fore and aft, serves as a protection to the propeller, rudder and anchor. The propeller is of course at the stern, and the equipoise rudder behind that, and they are so protected by the upper vessel that they cannot be struck by a ball. The anchor is in front, and is short but very heavy. It is hoisted by a chain running into the hold, up into a place fitted for it, outside of the lower hull, but within the im-

pregnable walls of the upper hull. The inclination of the lower hull is such that a ball, to strike it in any part, must pass through at least twenty-five feet of water, and then strike an inclined iron surface at an angle of about ten degrees. It is, therefore, absolutely protected, yet so light as to give great buoyancy. A ball striking the eighteen inches of exposed upper hull, to do material damage, must pass through six inches of iron, thirty inches of white oak, then about half an inch more of iron.

"The hull being finished, we will go on board. Only three things are exposed above deck. In the centre is the turret or citadel, the wheel-house, and possibly a box around the smoke-escape.

"The battery, as far as can be now judged, seems to have no vulnerable part, save the port-holes, which are exposed only about half a minute in firing. Its sharp and massive iron prow will enable it to sink any ordinary vessel with perfect ease. In case it is boarded no harm is done. The only entrance is at the top of the turret,* which cannot be easily scaled, and even then but one man at a time can descend. There are no places in the deck where an entrance can be forced, so the boarding party may stay until the sea washes them off, or the sharpshooters assist in their departure."

In the course of some remarks made by Mr. Ericsson before the New York Chamber of Commerce, on Wednesday, March 12th, he expresses the fullest assurance that, by a more skillful management of the guns, the Monitor will sink its late antagonist in the next encounter. By holding the guns exactly level at the distance of two hundred yards, he feels certain that shot can be sent quite through the hull of the Merrimac, and predicts that it will be sunk by the third round. Should this prediction prove true, very likely the most formidable engine of destruction in the possession of the rebels will have met its doom before this comes to the eyes of our readers. Mr. Ericsson considers "this vessel as equal to twenty forts. It can move from place to place, and draws only twelve feet of water," while the Warrior, in New York harbor, draws thirty-four. Hence he thinks that the harbor of New York could be more effectually protected by means of a single floating battery like the Monitor than by all its present defences were they even greatly augmented.

L. F. C.

* The turret is sixty-four feet in circumference, furnishing "quite a promenade" for officers and crew when not in action.

Prof. Agassiz on Clams.

Prof. Agassiz delivered a lecture on the 1st, in the Boston Aquarial Gardens, on Tuesday evening, of which the Boston *Courier* gives the following report:

As you walk along the beach at low tide, you will not unfrequently observe a thin stream of water spouting up at your feet, sometimes to a considerable height. On looking down, you find, at the spot from which the spouting comes, a small hole in the sand or mud, and if you dig down you come to a clam. Now the clam, living thus under ground, cannot be reached in its natural habitation, but must be transferred to another, where it will not be under the normal condition of its existence.

The first thing to learn about the clam, as we do about every animal which we wish to study, is its natural position, that position which it takes when left to itself, in a locality adapted to its mode of life. We find, by digging, that this is vertical, the narrow ends pointing upward and downward. The natural position of the oyster, on the contrary, is upon its side, although it belongs to the same class of shell as the clam,—the BIVALVES. The mussel or fresh water clam, also a bivalve, assumes a different position, lying upon its thin or inner edge. Now here is a singular and great difficulty in commencing to study these animals, for with all of them we ought, for comparison, to begin by placing them so that the position of their organs shall correspond. In many classes we find no difficulty in doing this. All quadrupeds, all birds, and nearly all fishes are alike in the chief characteristics of positions which they naturally take. But we have here three animals, of the same class, which yet assume the most different positions. In the clam we find in the sand standing upon its end, the muscle on its edge, and the oyster on its side,—its left side always, which has a peculiar shell. Sometimes we find, indeed, another whose right shell is deepest, and which lies upon that side, but this is a freak of nature, as rare to find as a snail whose shell is a coiled spiral.

Now if, for instance, we should find some insects which flew with their legs upward and wings beneath, while others had their legs beneath and wings above, and should commence to compare them, taking for similar organs those which occupy similar positions, we should find differences which would certainly be astonishing, and such would be the case with the bi-

valves. We must first begin by ascertaining the position of the different organs.

The position of the clam, then, is upright, with the joint of the shell, which we call the hinge, upon one side. It lies thus in the hole which it forms for itself in the sand or mud, and around which it is able to move by means which will presently be explained.

But we will begin by first examining the outer covering of the animal—its shell,—and the first thing which we notice is a series of concentric lines of increasing length, and extending from the neighborhood of the hinge, outward, to the edge of each shell. These lines indicate the progressive growth of the animal, and the manner of their formation is explained when we understand what the shell is,—that it is part of the skin of the clam. Upon our own skin we all know there is an external layer, the cuticle or epidermis, which is not sensitive. Beneath that lies a layer filled with vessels and nerves, the sensitive layer, and beneath that a close, compact layer, composed of interlacing fibres, which is, so to speak, the leather layer. Now, the shell of a clam is a layer of limestone, deposited in its skin between the external and the sensitive layers. This secretion of a hard substance from the sensitive layer of the skin is not peculiar to this animal. In ourselves, the nails, for instance, the feathers of birds and the scales of fishes, are examples of similar productions. They are secreted by the vascular or sensitive layer. Now this, in the clam, is a progressive deposit, layer after layer, produced in the skin, and extending each time with the growth of the animal, so that, externally we see a series of concentric lines marking the successive layers of calcareous secretion. As these layers all begin at the same point, and overlap or under-lap each other, it follows that the oldest parts of the shell, those nearest the hinge, are the thickest, and we find this, on examination, to be the case.

From one side of the shell there extends inward a spoon-shaped projector, opposite to which, and attaching it to the antagonist shell, is an elastic ligament. This is the hinge, and the position and thickness of the ligament or elastic cushion is such, that by its elasticity it has a tendency to press back the spoon-shaped projector, and force the shell open. It thus requires an exertion of strength on the part of the clam to keep its shell shut. It effects this by means of muscular bands extending directly across from one shell to the other. When these contract, the shell closes; when they re-

lax, the rubber-like cushion before spoken of forces the shell open again.

The leather-layer of the clam's skin lines the whole shell, and extends across, when the shells separate from one edge to the other, thus causing the inner portion of the animal to be a closed cavity. In this the clam differs from the oyster, or the oyster differs from the clam, in being, as it were, ripped open along the edges of its shell, exposing the cavity of the body and its enclosed organs when the shell gapes.

There are two openings only in the clam's skin. One of these, divided by a partition and forming a sort of syphon, is contained in that dark part which is often mistaken for the anterior portion of the body, and which can be protruded until it is three or four times the length of the shell itself. The other opening is along the edge, near the opposite end. The first of these openings, when the clam is in its natural position, points upward, and the other is directed downward and forward.

Through the syphon-like tube just spoken of, water is admitted to the interior of the animal, carrying with it the air necessary for respiration, and also the food required for nutrition. Yet this is not the anterior, but the posterior part of the clam. The mouth is at the other end, within the body, and situated at the entrance of the stomach, which latter, together with the intestines, liver and heart, are contained in the oval sack which we find within the animal. The water enters by the lower division of the syphon, passes along the anterior edge of the body through a passage, the walls of which are formed by the gills or breathing apparatus, reaches the mouth, which takes up the food contained in it, and is then rejected, by a passage along the hinge side, through the other opening of the syphon. This current, thus entering and returning from the interior of the clam's body by the two divisions of the posterior organ, can be made visible by sprinkling a little flour into the water in which the clam is kept. The motions of the little particles of flour, which the clam sucks up greedily, display the currents with great beauty. When the clam is strongly compressed the water contained in its body is jetted out by both orifices of the syphon, but at other times the current exists as above described.

The other opening of the clam's body, situated at the edge between the middle and the lower end, is for the protrusion of a tongue-like object, which is really a foot,—the organ of locomotion. By aid of this, loosening the sand and

ejecting it upward by means of the water jet from its syphon, the clam turns in its hole, enlarges it, and even moves along through the ground from place to place. This foot may be projected for half an inch or more beyond the edge of the shell.

The clam produces its eggs and drops them in the sand where they are hatched, and the young clams, though at first scarcely larger than a pin's head, act precisely like the adults.

The clam has a rather complicated nervous system, but no organs of the senses. The tongue-like foot is well supplied with nerves, and is doubtless an organ of touch, by which the animal directs as well as effects its motions. When the tide flows over the spot where the clam lies, it sends up its syphon tube to the surface of the ground, and the openings of this are then seen to be bordered with fine fringes, which are able to prevent the ingress of any hurtful substance. These fringes are also endowed with nervous sensibility. Near the base of this organ are certain little dots, which are the eyes of the clam—rudimentary organs, by which it cannot discern objects, but can discriminate light from darkness, somewhat as we are able to do through the lids when the eyes are shut. There are innumerable intermediate steps in nature from the lowest to the highest organs; from these rudimentary spots upon the body of the clam up to the highly complex organ by which in us, the function of vision is performed—the brilliant eye, flashing or softening with every thought and emotion—and from an organ just capable of appreciating vibrations, to the human ear, alive to the harmony of music and every varying tone which tells of thought, of feeling, and of intellectual power. To understand these organs properly, we must first consider and study them in their simpler forms, and then trace their development onward and upward in the progressively rising series of animal existence.

A RUSSIAN LAKE.—The Russian journals have recently been filled with accounts of an extensive lake called Nor-Nuissan, lately discovered, to the south of the Altai Mountains, in Chinese Droungaria. It is frozen from September to May, but it is so full of fish that a great number of Russians, with the consent of the Chinese authorities, have established fisheries on the banks.

Conversation would be abridged if all men spoke only the truth.

Philology.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to HENRY CLARK, Pawtucket, R. I.

LITERARY men or lovers of books are invited to contribute to this department. The contributor will be expected to communicate his name and address to the editor of this department, as above, which need not be published unless at the wish of the contributor. Writers are requested to confine their essays within the usual bounds assigned to the department—two printed pages. It will not be convenient to return manuscript.

For the Schoolmaster. The Bible in Chaucer.

A branch of evidence towards the truth of Scripture is that very important fact that all along the line of history, from the earliest times to the present, so far as we have any records, Scripture has been quoted and copied into books of every kind.

This is the best class of contemporaneous evidence. A very common source of this is found in almost every man's select library, and though it is comparatively recent, it goes to establish the general truth, by placing a bound far into the past. Four hundred years ago, Geoffrey Chaucer, a poet, lived and wrote his Canterbury Tales, on account of which his fame has descended to us and his name has been favorably known to litterateurs during all that long period. The poetical tales have been rendered into rhyme by perhaps more than one modern poet. But the richest of all and the most tedious of all to the general reader, are the two prose tales, one called The Tale of Melibeus, the other, The Persones Tale. It is from the latter that some quotations in the beginning of the Tale have been chosen for this article. It must be remembered in this connection that the date ascribed to this work of Chaucer is 1383, or late in the fourteenth century,—more than fifty years before printing was invented and two centuries or more before our translation of the Scriptures was executed by order of James I.

The Persones Tale, as may be surmised, is a sermon. The divisions are distinct, the topics well treated upon, the illustrations apt, and the allusions well chosen. First is a quotation from Scripture in the very initial sentence:—

"Our sweet Lord God of heaven, that no man wol perissh, but wol that we comen all to the knowleching of him, and to the blissful life that is pardurable [lasting] amonesteth us by the prophet Jeremiah, that saith in this wise: Stondeth upon the ways, and seeth and axeth of the old paths; that is to say, of old sentences: which is the good way: and walketh in that way, and ye shul find refreshing for your soules."^{*}

A curious reader can compare the text of the quotations I make with that of the present ver-

sion. I shall quote without further introduction only those sentences from Scripture that are written fullest in the text. The whole story is sprinkled with citations from the Bible, too brief and too numerous for the purpose of this article:—

"Suffer, Lord, that I may awhile bewail and beweepe, or I go without returning to the dark land, covered with the darkness of death; to the land of misere and of darkness, whereas is the shadow of death: whereas is none order ne ordinance, but grisly drede that ever shall last. —From the book of Job,

If the rightful man return again fro his righteousness and do wickedness, shall he live? nay; for all the good works that he hath wrought, shall never be in remembrance, for he shall die in his sin.—*Ezekiel*.

He was wounded for our misdeeds and defouled for our felonies.—*Isaiah*.

I was at the door of thine heart, saith Jesus, and cleped for to enter. He that openeth to me shall have forgiveness of his sins and I wol enter into him by my grace, and sup with him by the good works that he shall don, which works ben the food of God, and he shall sup with me by the great joy that I shall give him.

The flesh coveteth against the spirit and the spirit against the flesh. . . . Alas! I cariff man, who shall deliver me from the prison of my cariff body?—*St. Paul*.

Love your enemies and prayeth for them that speak you harm, and for them that chase and pursue you: and do bounty to them that hate you.—*Christ*.

God saith; Thou shalt not take the name of thy Lord God in idel Ne shall ye not swear in all manner, neither by heaven for it is God's throne; ne by earth, for it is the bench of his feat: ne by Jerusalem, for it is the city of a great King: ne by thine head, for thou ne mayest not make an hair white ne black; but he saith, be your word ye, ye, nay, nay; and what that is more it is of evil. Thus saith Christ.

Thou shalt keep three conditions; thou shalt swear in truth, in dome [judgment] and in righteousness.—*Jeremiah*.

Look also what saith Saint Peter; *Actuum* iv. *Non est aliud nomen sub celo, &c.* There is none other name (saith Saint Peter) under heaven given to men, in which they may be saved; that is to say, but the name of Jesus Christ.

Take kepe [heed] eke how precious is the name of Jesus Christ, as saith St. Paul, *ad Philipenses* ii. *In nomine Jesu, &c.*, that in the name of Jesus every knee of heavenly creature, or earthly or of hell, should bowen; for it is so high and so worshipful, that the cursed fiend in hell should tremble for to hear it named.

For as witnesseth Saint Matthew, *Cap. v.*, a city may not be hid that is set on a mountain. ne men light not a lantern, to put it under a bushel, but setten it upon a candlestick, to lighten the men in the house: right so shall your light lighten before men, that they mow see your good works, and glorify your Father that is in heaven."

The source of the quotations made by the Parson, whether the Greek, the vulgate or the vernacular text, is not certainly apparent, but the Latin quotations of the beginning of verses show that it was probably the Latin version of Scripture no doubt common in that time—possibly the version of Jerome, made out of the Greek in the fourth century. As a matter of curiosity, I compared

* The orthography is partially modernised.

these few words in Latin with Beza's Latin Testament, and found that they were not strictly identical. Beza belongs in the middle of the 16th century.

There is a well-known version of the Scriptures that was prepared by Wiclif at about the same period in which Chaucer wrote. It is in the English, and, as the account of it says, was made by Wiclif while he was searching the Latin Scriptures in a controversy with a scholar concerning religious principles. This is not now at hand, but probably is not strictly identical with the Parson's translation, evidently accomplished by himself.

Perhaps the reader may be interested in an analysis of the Tale whence our material is drawn. It is, then, as follows:—An introduction defines the nature of penance or contrition, and enumerates six causes that ought to move a man to contrition. Next follows, under the head, *Explicit prima pars penitentiae; et incipit pars secunda* (the headings are all in Latin): *De septem peccatis mortalibus:—De Superbia; Remedium Superbiae—De Invidia; Remedium Invidiae—De Ira; Remedium Irae—De Accidia* [negligence arising from vexation or melancholy]; *Remedium Accidiae—De Avaritia; Remedium Avaritia—De Gula; Remedium Gulae—De Luzzuria; Remedium Luzzurie*. Then the closing topic treats of satisfaction in alms-deeds and bodily pain.

The whole Tale occupies seventy-two pages of the London edition—G. Routledge & Co.

It is of great importance to the understanding of Scripture that in doubtful passages the text of various versions be compared. Doubtless our present translation now in common use will be the favorite translation during many years to come; yet it is well to look back into the dark ages of the past to discover what neglected beauties may lie hidden there which may shed a lustre even in this age upon obscure passages in holy literature. The morning-star of literature has long shed its rays across the dim and misty past and to-day throws no feeble light on our noble language. Whatever of light it can scatter on the truths of the Bible must be allowed to shine: by which even the wisest man will not disdain to be guided in the darkness.

Analogies in Language.*

In 1839, Jacob Grimm commenced publishing his magnificent work, a Teutonic Grammar, embracing the Scandinavian as well as the German languages, and drawing his authorities from the whole wide, long range of German authorship, from Ulfilas' translation of the Scriptures (A. D. 388,) the only record in existence of the old Gothic, down to his own day; and finished his great

labor in 1837. The scholarship of the work is wonderful, for its breadth, accuracy and ingenuity. It is not too much to say, that the world has never exhibited a finer specimen of the true scholar, according to the highest and fullest ideal, than he is. His "scale," or law of correspondences of sound in the different Indo-European languages, is one of the highest triumphs of inductive analysis that have been ever furnished in any science. Bopp's first incidental suggestions in this direction he perfected into full ripe science, and in constructing his "scale," made it with such nicety, as to its own characteristics and all its gradations, that, while the sphere of its use has been much extended since, no improvement has been made upon it at any time in respect to its own essential nature. He has thus in effect given not only definiteness and certainty, but also breadth and power, to the science of comparative etymology. The laws of analogy he has shown to pervade as truly human language as nature herself. . . .

GRIMM'S SCALE.*

	Labials.			Gutturals.			Dentals.		
Greek,	B.	P.	PH.	G.	K.	CH.	D.	T.	TH.
Gothic,	P.	PH.	B.	K.	CH.	G.	T.	TH.	D.
Old High German,	PH.	B.	P.	CH.	G.	K.	TH.	D.	T.

For the Latin the scale runs as follows:

Latin,	B.	P.	F.	G.	C.	H.	D.	T.	(F.)
Gothic,	P.	F.	B.	K.	H.	G.	T.	TH.	D.
Old High German,	PH.	F.	P.	CH.	H.	K.	Z.	D.	T.

The interpretation of the scale is this: that the several letters corresponding perpendicularly displace each other or are substituted for each other, in the equivalent forms of the different languages respectively, especially when initial. Thus the Gothic and the Lower German dialects substitute, in relation to the Greek and Latin, and measurably also to the Sanskrit and the Zend, aspirates for original tenues (as, h for k, th for t, and f for p); tenues for medials, (as t for d, p for b, and k for g); and medials for aspirates (as g for ch, d for th, and b for f). It must not be supposed that these interchanges are observed in every case, with absolute uniformity. To what law, except that of love in things moral, and of attraction in things physical, are there not exceptions allowed and even constituted? But such are the general principles that prevail in respect to the mutual interchanges of letters, in these several languages.

*Grimm's Geschichte der deutschen Sprache, p. 276.

It is bad policy to employ one who knows but little to teach another who knows less. The little child needs the wisest teacher.

*From Modern Philology,—Dwight. New York: A. S. Barnes & Burr. pp. 215—217.

Mathematics.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to N. W. DeMUNN, Providence.

From the Ohio Educational Monthly. Oral Lessons in Arithmetic.

BY DANIEL HOUGH.*

IN 1857, a condition was made by the Cincinnati School Board, that pupils, in passing from grade D to C, should be able to combine the nine digits in addition to amounts less than fifty.

Previous to this time there had been no combined and systematic effort to teach numbers to our younger classes of pupils, although, from as far back as the year 1848, oral arithmetic had been printed each year in the course of study as a part of our work. Yet, from the fact that each principal had a school of his own, from which he was to send as many as possible to the High School, and that there were no regular examinations in the lower grades—sections as they were then called—no attention was given to this subject that was really worthy the name. The numbers of pages in their books, and sometimes not even that, constituted all that was expected from the teacher of oral arithmetic. So slow and inaccurate were the pupils, even in the more advanced sections, that I have heard merchants say that, when our boys went into business houses, they had to be taught to add before they were of much service.

But the new rule instituted a new order of things; and I would say parenthetically, that I am afraid the Board will have to adopt other new rules before some things now standing in our course of study will be taught as they should—"Object Lessons," "English Language," "Composition," and "Drawing," for instance. We were at this time beginning to realize the value of examinations and a good classification. Principals were no longer held responsible for the number admitted to the high schools, but their schools were given up to their first assistants, and their time and energies were devoted to the advancement and classification of the entire number of pupils under their charge of each.

A general revival now broke out. Principals' meetings were held almost weekly, also the teachers of the different grades had their meetings, and matters vital to the interests of the schools were discussed, and these things, together with the splendid report of the Superintendent of 1857, gave schools an impetus which I think is felt by us all to-day, and will continue to be felt.

I remember how troubled I was to find a correct method of teaching addition to children, for I wanted to find one by which we might secure both *rapidity* and *accuracy*.

I came to the conclusion that our pupils had been dragged over the ground too fast and been given too large numbers before they could add the smaller ones. In those days we were indeed devoted to our books, and the teacher had no thought of giving any other examples than those found in them, and in our arithmetics we found the first column given to add quite as difficult as the last one. In my troubles, I happened to see a diagram of Pestalozzi's, in which he had used marks in groups to represent numbers, and I knew also that he had the reputation of having numbered among his pupils the most rapid and accurate calculators of any teacher of his age. I did not follow Pestalozzi's table, but made one composed of both marks and figures, as follows:

1	1	1	1
11	11	11	11
2	2	2	2
111	111	111	111
3	3	3	3
1111	1111	1111	1111
4	4	4	4
11111	11111	11111	11111
5	5	5	5
111111	111111	111111	111111
6	6	6	6
1111111	1111111	1111111	1111111
7	7	7	7

etc., up to 10.

The primary object of these marks was of course that the children might count them. But this was not all. They accustomed the child to see the group of units represented by the digit below it.

My method of using the table was this:

1. To drill the pupil until he was able to count to one hundred by ones.
2. To count to one hundred by twos.
3. To combine the ones and twos in addition until the pupil no longer hesitated.
4. To count to one hundred by threes.
5. To combine the ones, twos and threes in addition until the pupil could add as fast as he could speak.

Then continue with the fours, fives, sixes, etc., in the same manner to the end of the table, never allowing the pupil at any time to name the figures in finding the sum of two digits but always to give the result, and, if at any time a pupil hesitated, putting him at once back where he could come at the result more easily. This plan, you will see, with the exception of the marks, is entirely abstract; it was intended—as the original rule required—to be used by pupils in the Second Reader. Where the teacher steadily pursued this plan, the results were indeed most gratifying.

But this plan has its faults, and some serious

*Principal First District School, Cincinnati.

ones, as I have found by trying it nearly four years. In the first place, it is too abstract; in the second, it only teaches children to count and add *forwards*; and in the third place, it contemplates children commencing in the Second Reader. Now, if the following plan were carried out, all these objections would be obviated.

As soon as children come into school they should commence learning to count. Let the teacher obtain two baskets and one hundred of the prettiest marbles she can find; those of the primary colors are the best, as they would also serve to aid in giving lessons on color. Pebbles will do if marbles cannot be had. Get also a quart of beans, corn or peas. The teacher will use the marbles and the children the beans.

Teach them to count one hundred both forwards and backwards. After giving a handful of beans to each pupil, let the teacher take the empty basket and holding it up before them, ask what is in the basket—the children answer “nothing”; tell them that nought and nothing are the same. Now put one marble in the basket, and ask how many are in it—they say one; then let the teacher say nought and one are one—the class repeating the same; then taking it out and questioning as before, say one from one leaves nought. Now teach the pupils to perform the same operation with the beans on their slates that the teacher does with the marbles in the basket.

Then advance to two and back to nought, then to three and subtract, and thus advancing *one* at a time and subtracting back to nought, proceed to one hundred. They should then be taught to make the figures and illustrate thus, also by using corn or beans:

- 1.—1
- 2.—11
- 3.—111
- 4.—1111
- 5.—11111
- 6.—111111
- 7.—1111111
- 8.—11111111
- 9.—111111111
- 10.—1111111111

The class should now be required to count every thing in the room; if they are in the First Reader let them count the pages and lessons in their books, etc. They should also be questioned as to what number comes before any number; also, what number comes after any number.

Let each have a handful of beans, and require them to put so many on one end of their slates and so many on the other end; let them push them together and tell instantly how many in the group. Vary this exercise so that a pupil can grasp any group not larger than fifteen at sight.

With a thorough drill in the above exercises, if the pupils can now count backward as well and as

rapidly as forwards, they are ready to commence learning the twos. In this they should be taught precisely in the same way as in learning the ones. Thus, with explanations and using objects to illustrate: 0, 2—2, 0; 0, 2, 4—4, 2, 0; 0, 2, 4, 6—6, 4, 2, 0; 0, 2, 4, 6, 8—8, 6, 4, 2, 0, etc. After the pupil can go forwards and backwards rapidly to 100, commencing with 2, let him then commence with one and add or subtract 2 forwards and backwards—thus illustrating by objects as before: 1, 3—3, 1; 1, 3, 5—5, 3, 1; 1, 3, 5, 7—7, 5, 3, 1; 1, 3, 5, 7, 9—9, 7, 5, 3, 1; 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11—11, 9, 7, 5, 3, 1, etc.

I would then give the class a thorough drill in adding and subtracting the ones and twos, using the first part of the table before given. I think all the pupils who pass from the First to the Second Reader ought to be able to add any combination of ones and twos as fast as they can speak.

Proceed in the same manner with all the other figures in the table, always being sure that the pupil can count backwards as fast as he can forwards before any new digit is taken up; and that at no time, when adding or subtracting properly, *should the pupil give any thing but the result*. The same table can be used through the digits as before given, using objects to illustrate.

It will often be the case that a pupil can give the sum of any two digits, as 8 and 7, at a glance, but at 78 and 7 or 88 and 7 he will hesitate. In such a case always go back and give a drill on the endings of numbers—thus, the sum of 8 and 7 ends in 5, so will the sum of any two numbers if the digits in the unit's place are 8 and 7. It is always well in going through the table, to give lessons (and pupils should have from five to ten different examples every day, besides the drill on the table) in such a way that the pupil may often have to repeat the sum or difference of any two digits or numbers on which the class may have failed, or in any way hesitated; always keeping it before them, that the sum of any digit, with any number, will be the next number *above* the given number that ends like the sum of the units of the number given with the given digit. So in subtraction, keep it before them that the answer will be the next number *below* the given number ending in a certain way.

In this way let addition and subtraction be combined from the first stages of the learner's progress, and if pupils are advanced no faster than they learn everything thoroughly, the result in annihilating the drudgery of computation will realize the most sanguine expectations.

THE use of the microscope is denominated microscopy, and the latter word is sometimes improperly pronounced, “mi-cro-scop-y” instead of mi-cro-sco-py, as authorized by good usage. It is akin to the vulgar pronunciation of “ho-mœo-path-y” for ho-mœo-pa-thy, “al-lo-path-y” for al-lo-pa-thy, or “hy-dro-path-y” for hy-dro-pa-thy, or “mi-crop-sych-y” for mi-crop-sy-chy (see-key), or “mi-cro-graph-y” for mi-cro-gra-phy.—*Boston Transcript*.

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster.

ARITHMETIC.

1. I bought a lot of land 8 rods in length and 70 feet wide, at the rate of \$1320 per acre, and sold it at an advance of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. What sum did I receive? Ans. \$315.

2. The sum received for the land I expended for broadcloth at $16\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. less than its real worth, and sold it at an advance of 11 1-9 per cent. of its real worth. What sum was gained upon the cloth? Ans. \$105.

3. The sum received for the broadcloth I invested in cotton, which I sold at a discount of 9 1-11 per cent., and also for 20 per cent. less than my asking price. Required the asking price. Ans. \$477.27 3-11.

4. The sum paid for the land is what per cent. of the sum received for the cotton? Ans. $73\frac{1}{2}$.

5. I invested the sum received for the cotton in rice, which I sold at the same per cent. of its cost as is expressed in the answer to the fourth example. What would have been my loss per cent. had I sold the rice for \$336? Ans. 12.

6. The sum received for the rice I invested in flour, which I sold at the rate of $\frac{1}{3}$ of it for the cost of the whole. What was my gain per cent.? Ans. 60.

7. I invested the sum received for the flour in coffee, which, at the end of 5 months, I sold at the same per cent. advance of its prime cost as is expressed in the answer to the fifth example. What was my gain per cent., money being worth 6 per cent.? Ans. 9 11-41.

8. The sum received for the rice is what per cent. of the sum received for the coffee? Ans. 55 45-56.

9. The sum received for the coffee I invested in sugar which I sold at such a rate that \$639 was $106\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the sum received for it. How many dollars did I gain? Ans. 98.24.

10. I invested the sum received for the sugar in goods, which I sold immediately for \$675.50, on 4 months credit. What was my gain per cent. on the day of the sale, money being worth 6 per ct.? Ans. 10 451-1200.

MENTAL ARITHMETIC.

1. If from 8 times the third of a number there be taken 56 more than twice the number, one-fourth the number minus 40 will still remain. Required the number. Ans. 36.

2. What number is that to which if $3\frac{1}{2}$ times itself be added, and from the sum there be subtracted 10 times the fourth of the number, and the remainder be multiplied by $\frac{1}{2}$, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ be added to

the product, the sum will be $12\frac{3}{4}$ more than 4 9 the number? Ans. 9.

3. If I sell my pencils at $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents apiece I would lose \$1.17, and if at $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents apiece I would gain \$1.17. How many pencils have I? Ans. 104.

4. A girl bought some needles at 20 for 3 cents, and as many more at 800 for a dollar. She sold them at 8 for a cent, and found she had lost $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents. How many needles did she buy? Ans. 500.

5. A person being asked the time of day, answered, that if to the time past midnight be added $\frac{1}{2}$ its $\frac{1}{2}$, 1-6, $\frac{1}{2}$ and 5-12, the sum will be equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the time to noon. Required the time. Ans. 4 o'clock A. M.

6. A's money is to B's as $\frac{5}{6}$ is to 7-9; but after A has given away \$95.33 and B has spent \$62.30, A's money just equals B's. What had each? Answer — B's, \$154.14; A's, \$187.71.

7. A and B invest equal sums in trade. A loses a sum equal to $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. of his stock, when his money is 7-9 of B's. What did each invest, if B gained \$97.37 $\frac{1}{2}$? Ans. \$486.875.

8. If a merchant sells his goods so that 2-7 the sum received is gain, what is the gain per cent.? Ans. 40.

9. I bought goods for 88 8-9 per cent. of their real worth and sold them for 10 per cent. less than their real worth. What was my gain per cent.? Ans. $1\frac{1}{2}$.

10. A boy being asked the time of day answered, that 9-10 the time past noon is equal to 3-5 of $\frac{1}{2}$ the time to midnight. What was the hour? Ans. 3 o'clock P. M.

GRAMMAR.

1. State in what respects the *verb* and the *participle* are alike and in what they differ.

2. State the same in regard to the *noun* and the *infinitive*. Also in regard to the *participle* and the *infinitive*.

3. Write the rules for the use of capital letters.

4. *Whatever* promotes truth is *worthy* our serious *consideration*. Parse the italicized words.

5. Conjugate the verb *decide*, second person, singular number, emphatic form, in all the modes (where it is so used).

6. Analyze the following sentence:—If prompted by a sense of duty, heed the call; if conscience reprove thee, listen to its warnings.

7. Analyze the following *grammatically*,—that is, by giving the peculiar office and force of each word:—The letter has been written.

8. These houses are theirs. Parse *theirs*.

9. *Having completed* the task *assigned him*, and *being wearied* with the effort, he sat down to rest. Parse the parts of speech italicized.

10. Compose a sentence containing two adverbial clauses, one objective element of the third class, and two adjective propositions. Analyze it *logically*.

SPELLING. — ABLE, IBLE.

1. Intelligible, contemptible, indispensable, discernible, irritable, incomparable, impeachable, divisible, allegeable, irretrievable, forcible, noticeable, infallible, conceivable, malleable, indelible, ineffable, amicable, appreciable, acquirable, susceptible, immovable, ascertainable, inexhaustible, available, incorrigible, inflammable, irresistible, edible, changeable, horrible, ratable, legible, affable, irascible, peaceable, indigestible, flexible, palpable, blamable, dissyllable, liquable, pleasurable, feasible, trisyllable, crucible, laudable, sensible, arable, agreeable.—59.

2. Consolable, mentionable, incorrigible, consumable, convincible, convertible, conversable, indubitable, eludible, equitable, inexpiable, habitable, insatiable, inscriptible, instructible, reconcilable, insuperable, amenable, irreclaimable, separable, contestable, docible, indomitable, inducible, eligible, evasible, inevitable, inspirable, suppressible, tangible, untenable, irrefragable, leviable, lovable, applicable, allowable, irremediable, irremissible, irreparable, isolable, leasable, irrevocable, repressible, repealable, respirable, irreversible, irrevocable, deplorable, avoidable.—59.

3. Ascribable, approvable, amiable, detestable, justifiable, judicable, lacerable, liquefiable, ameliorable, irrepleviable, lamentable, laudable, objectionable, bearable, audible, attributable, attachable, argumentable, apprehensible, alterable, acquirable, constrainable, unfathomable, demonstrable, compatible, comodible, inventible, impossible, immatchable, decreptible, constable, inimitable, conveyable, irresuscitable, corruptible, incommutable, condensable, incredible, issuable, falsifiable, cessible, fluxible, expansible, compellable, unascendible, declarable, gaugeable, execrable, pacifiable, receptible.—59.

4. Valuable, profitable, effervescible, inevitable, inextinguishable, abominable, inexorable, inexplicable, explorable, imperceptible, unnameable, inferable, (inferrible), perceivable, intolerable, imperishable, admissible, portable, considerable, vocable, acceptable, effaceable, inerasable, excusable, inexpressible, indefatigable, fusible, accessible, impenetrable, impatible, persuasible, admissible, ascendible, comprehensible, conquerable, salvable, uncontrovertible, congealable, warrantable, invincible, vegetable, utterable, untirable, unspeakable, repressible, preventable, adducible, confinable, manageable, deiceable, dissolvable.—59.

5. Vulnerable, vitrifiable, venerable, translatable, inscrutable, unquenchable, conformable, defensible, hendecasyllable, acceptable, quittance, colliquable, quadrisyllable, observable, ordainable, terrible, identifiable, ignitable, imaginable, immedicable, immensurable, immiscible (cannot be mixed), immitigable, impassible (incapable of suffering), incapable, healable, inheritable, fermentable, formidable, qualifiable, quotable, exceptional, *octosyllable, organisable, combustible, mea-*

surable, impartible, immutable, communicable, impatible, impeccable, impenetrable, imperforable, imperviable, imperturbable, impermeable, pierceable, habitable, movable.—59.

6. Implacable, plausible, imputable, applicable, apprehensible, inalienable, uncharitable, combinable, uncircumscribable, impeditable, permeable, persuadable, ponderable, impregnable, probable, appeasable, approachable, audible, censurable, incinerable, coagulable, coercible, incommiscible, incompatible, compressible, computable, inconceivable, concealable, inconcussible, indubitable, corrosible, incredible, censurable, ineffaceable, indelible, defensible, curable, decipherable, contractible, increasable, corrodible, irrefutable, controllable, dishonorable, indisputable, tractable, contestable, effectible, condensable, combustible.—59.

Editors' Department.

Thank You.

FOR that generous response to the calls of our journal at Centreville, a few weeks since. The hearts of all friends of THE SCHOOLMASTER were made glad by the reinforcements there received to our subscription columns. During the session of the Institute there nearly thirty new names were enrolled. These were from the strong men of the business world, who never taught school a day in the world; neither do they expect to do so. Yet from a sense of the public good, they openly expressed their hearty sympathy with our State journal and backed it up with "the dollar." One citizen of Centreville (and we have been tempted several times to speak his name "right out in meeting") took five copies, and he said he felt it his duty to do all in his power for the promotion of education. "Long may he wave." Several of the clergy there spoke on this point, and pledged their warm sympathy and coöperation. Many thanks for such warm hearts. We must confess that little Centreville has hung her banner on the outer wall. She is in the front rank of this great enterprise. Three cheers and a tiger for Centreville. Let our tongues "cleave" ere we cease to sound her praises.

Is it not wonderful how one's "bodily presence" can be transcribed to a bit of paper? It is pleasing to have one's shadows duplicated, thereby always able to be identified. A stag once drinking from a limpid lake, espied another stag directly "under his nose," winking and blinking at him. Enraged that the realms of stagdom had furnished another as fair as himself, he plunged at the mocking twin. Soon he coolly left the broken mirror fully convinced that it was nothing strange to see a perfect likeness. If you will only visit Frank Rowell's Artist Rooms, Westminster street, Providence, you shall come away with the same idea. Mr. Rowell is an artist, as well as a mechanic.

From the Providence Evening Press, March 20th.

Lieut. H. R. Pierce.

An important truth is bound up in the expression—"The fortunes of war." We will not believe that *anything* in human affairs is the result of *chance*. Blind chance does not rule the world. There is a superintending Providence, an over-ruling Providence, that orders all events—events of war and of peace; of joy and of pain.

It is easy for us New Englanders—Rhode Islanders—when Fort Donaldson is taken, even at a great sacrifice of life, to run up our flags, shake hands with our neighbors, and rejoice at a Great Union Victory. The soldiers in that campaign are strangers to us. They belong to the West. But when Gen. Burnside takes New England regiments up the Neuse river and captures the rebel fortifications before Newbern, with heavy loss, it is a different affair. Our joy is none the less at the victory; it is a glorious achievement; but that joy is tempered with many a wild heart-throb of anguish at the irreparable loss of so many of New England's choicest and bravest men.

Many a fireside is saddened with grief to-night, where three days ago joy ruled and gladness was a welcome guest.

Among all the memorials of the fallen brave, few will be read with keener sympathy by a large circle of friends, acquaintances and admirers, than these lines in commemoration of the high social, intellectual and moral character of him whose name stands at the head of this article. He was no mercenary soldier. He was not one who entered the ranks of the army simply for *glory*. He fought not for *glory*, but for his *country*. He was not born a soldier or educated one, but entered the service from pure motives of duty,—of patriotism,—of love for law and liberty.

Born in a rural town in the Green Mountain State, and educated at Amherst College, he had pursued the quiet pursuits of science and literature, devoting himself to the noble work of the instruction of youth in our system of public schools.

Laboring in different fields in Massachusetts, at the head of several of her public High Schools, by a generous sympathetic nature, high social qualities, a mind well stored and well disciplined, a noble, active, benevolent spirit, by an earnest and laborious devotion to his chosen work, and a firm and bold adherence to what he thought was truth and right,—he had secured the confidence and esteem of all, and the affection and strong personal attachment of large circles of more intimate friends and acquaintances. Nor had he done less in Rhode Island.

For nearly five years principal of one of our largest and most important High Schools, he has won for himself a large place in the hearts of Rhode Island teachers and friends of public schools.

His labors were first in his school and the community in which he lived, but they were not confined there. By his fidelity and ability he obtained to an unusual degree the confidence of the school authori-

ties, and of the citizens generally. By his scholars he was loved ardently, respected sincerely, and obeyed promptly. Earnest and active in the support of whatever measures he regarded as right and wise, he made himself efficient in a variety of objects affecting the welfare of the community. He was the teacher of a large Bible class in the Sabbath School; an earnest and a popular disputant in the village lyceum; an active supporter of free public libraries; ever a working member of lecture committees; and with his whole soul he was devoted to whatever would increase the prosperity of the community, and improve the condition of those around him.

In the general educational interests of the State he was as active as in his own community. One of the prominent movers in the revival and re-organization of the *Rhode Island Institute of Instruction*, a few years since, he was a valued member and officer of that body of practical teachers, ever present, when possible, at its meetings, and aiding efficiently in the editorial management of the *Rhode Island Schoolmaster*.

He was active in the last presidential election, and when the call was made for men to sustain with their swords and their muskets the principles on which the President was elected, he refused not to go. And that he should be the only officer of his rank from Rhode Island that fell in that fatal battle, shows that he was brave and faithful in the hour of action.

He leaves an estimable wife a widow, and an infant child an orphan. They are remembered with great tenderness and sympathy in their affliction, by his wide circle of friends. We can hardly afford to lose such men, but who shall say that the sacrifice is not well made, and that the cause in which he so gallantly died is not honored by the offering. Let all honor be accorded to the memory of those noble men, who, like him, with the offering of their blood, preserve for us and our children the dear rights and blessings once purchased at a similar cost. M.

AT A MEETING OF THE EXECUTIVE BOARD OF THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION, held March 21st, 1862, a committee appointed for the purpose reported the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Whereas, In the infinite wisdom of the Sovereign of the World, who sits as the Arbitrer of nations and who presides over the destinies of every individual, it has pleased Him, for some wise purpose, to allow our beloved brother and late fellow-teacher, Lieut. HENRY R. PIERCE, to be stricken down upon the battle field; therefore—

Resolved, That we mourn with heartfelt sorrow and grief his untimely and melancholy, though honorable death.

Resolved, That in this sad providence, we, the teachers of Rhode Island, have been deprived of the sympathy, fellowship and counsels of a brother, dearly beloved and highly esteemed; this Institute has lost one of its most valued and active members; our State mourns the fall of a useful citizen and a devoted patri-

ot; and her volunteer soldiery an able and a brave officer.

Resolved, That we honor the unselfish patriotism which called him from his scholastic duties at home to endure the privations and hardships of a soldier's life, to engage in the sanguinary conflict, and thus voluntarily to lay his life upon the altar of his country.

Resolved, That we appreciate the nobleness of the man and the bravery of the soldier, who, in his first battle, led his comrades within the entrenchments of the enemy, only to fall at the moment victory crowned their arms with complete triumph.

Resolved, That in this time of our country's trial, we have the utmost confidence in the justice of our cause; and, trusting in the *Right*, and relying solely for needed strength and assistance on the Great Jehovah, we look forward with no misgivings to a speedy and complete overthrow of this wicked and atrocious rebellion, and the permanent restoration of the authority of our good government over all this great country, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the Lakes to the Gulf.

Resolved, That in this irreparable loss we desire to proffer our deepest sympathy to the afflicted family and friends of our deceased brother, and to point them with entire confidence to the consolations of our holy religion.

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be communicated to the family of the deceased, and that they be published in the *Woonsocket Patriot*, the *Providence papers*, and the *Rhode Island Schoolmaster*.

WILLIAM A. MOWRY,
A. W. GODDING,
I. F. CADY, } Committee.

Modern Improvements.

As to what the greatest improvement of the age is we will not presume to state, and yet among the most wonderful, it seems to us, is the iron seamstress, that little family companion, the sewing machine. To him who has read "the song of the shirt," to her who has consumed weary nights with the slow needle for a family of romping, tearing children, the sewing machine presents a grateful relief. We speak of that which we know, when we say that they are a blessing to humanity. We have recently screwed up our courage to brave the misgivings of the economy of our fathers, and have purchased a sewing machine for the first time. We have held family gatherings to make inquiries into its strange but simple character. We have quizzed its disposition and temperament until we think if a severe diagnosis can ever prove fatal to the subject, this must be on "its last legs." But, as was remarked, we have purchased a sewing machine, and paid for it. We did this for two reasons. The principal one was that our wife could no longer dispense with it; the other, for fear that some fabled monster should silently steal out from the foggy shores of Dixie's alligator swamps, and while gazing at Bunker Hill, take Boston in at one swoop, sewing machines and all. An era has taken a position in our family, and the winter of our discontent is made glorious summer by the purchase of one of Grover & Baker's best ma-

chines. We have taken time to examine many others at the ware-rooms and in the family; we have heard the testimony of experienced workmen, and now, after our own use, we most cheerfully award the palm to the Grover & Baker machine. It will run many years with proper care, requiring trifling, if any, repair. Its stitch is elastic, strong and durable. It is easily oiled and cleaned, while its quiet demeanor when at work gives the canary birds the entire audience. These machines are fully competent to meet all their obligations. They make one of the strongest stitches known in hand sewing, while it will embroider on woolen for children's clothes, hem or gather, &c. We say to all who would catch a sunbeam in your nursery on a stormy day, while the children are all at home, go and get one of Mr. Clapp's Grover & Baker sewing machines, in the Phenix building, Providence.

From the Providence Evening Press.

Meeting of the Institute.

A meeting of the R. I. Institute of Instruction was held at Centreville, Warwick, commencing on Friday afternoon, Feb. 28th, at two o'clock.

Hon. Henry Rousmaniere, Commissioner of Public Schools, presided, and opened the exercises with an appropriate address. He commenced by saying that the Institute was a working body. No young teacher ought to sit silent. Every one had a duty to perform, in deciding how to listen with patience, speak with wisdom and vote with understanding. There must be no sluggards here.

The speaker recommended those present to cultivate more earnestness as teachers. They would all need great enthusiasm, for they must expect to encounter difficulties and provoke enemies. The road to all professional success was paved with trials, and hedged in with thorns. Above all professions, that of teaching was liable to produce lukewarmness. There were various reasons for this, such as the unjust interference of trustees and committees, the passionate partiality of parents, and the recurrence of the same questions, the same answers and the same lessons. The favorite schemes of a teacher being thus nipped in the bud, he sank at last into professional languor and listlessness.

Many teachers sought a relief from the lethargic influence of their daily pursuits by building "castles in the air." The danger was not in the possession of a brilliant imagination, but in the spendthrift abuse of it; not in the glowing fancy in which are daily bathed the homely trials of a village school, but in following capricious, unsubstantial shadows, faraway from the real objects of duty, home and school. Beware, said Mr. E., of "castles in the air." No one is made sounder, purer, wiser, or more industrious, by ignoring the plain, practical world, in which he lives, and peopling the air, the light and the woods with aerial beings. The result is a disordered state of the affections, and a complete disgust for the simple

a kind Providence has scattered every-

re recommended greater "method and the anxieties of the school and the elements to social excitement, teachers remember that a cool, quiet courage, make them masters of others; while and order would surely make them themselves.

lotter, of Providence, then gave a version of his system of teaching writing, ns were humorous and pleasant.

ssioner having in the course of a speech the teacher's sphere of usefulness, and persons upon whom he acted, were he sphere of the clergyman and the sons acted upon by him, the Rev. Mr. und expressed his dissent from this pro- discussion ensued, which was continued s. Leader, Brayton and Cooke. The gen- emed to be that there was really no en the duties of the teacher and the hat the one was instrumental in ad- ews and purposes of the other.

g was agreeably spent in listening to the ire of the Rev. Lyman Whiting, upon ts and Pleasures of School Keeping," ublished a report at the time of the g-

ay morning the Institute was opened y Rev. Lyman Whiting, and was con- exercise in English History, with a ed by Mr. D. R. Adams, of Centre-

llowed by a familiar lecture on the sub- g, by Joshua Kendall, Esq., of Bristol. oon, Mr. S. A. Briggs, of East Green- vactical exhibition of the attainments hical class in the art of map-drawing, ghly satisfactory to all present.

. Mowry, of Providence, then gave a fa- on the necessity for the study of the Constitution in our public schools.

of the lecture, the Commissioner made complimentary to the accurate memory answers of Mr. Briggs' class in Geog- inting out a few errors of pronuncia- ittle attention might rectify. He also aims of the RHODE ISLAND SCHOOL- e the meeting, and urged every teacher r that journal, and every friend of ed- at in circulating it. Upon this subject rose, which was participated in by nn and Mowry, of Providence, Lap- reville, Briggs, of East Greenwich, istol, Rev. A. H. Cooke and others.

were adopted expressing patriotic sen- ding a welcome to the citizens, teachers ho were on Saturday received into our ng regret at parting with those who day, and returning thanks to the lec-

turers, to the Methodist Church for the use of their vestry, and to the citizens of Centreville for their hospitality.

The Institute adjourned with singing America and Old Hundred.

Although this meeting was of a most interesting and lively character, still we missed one attraction enjoyed at recent meetings, viz.: that of a general participation in the discussions on the part of the younger teachers.

Centreville received the members of the Institute on this occasion, with characteristic hospitality. The exercises indicated mature reflection and careful thought on the part of those who engaged in them, the music was fascinating, and the attendance large, considering the inclemency of the weather.

WE are indebted to the kindness of the learned Agent of the Board of Education of Massachu- setts for his report on the "Defects Existing and the Improvements Needed," in the Public Schools of that State. We most heartily agree with the sentiments of the report in the main, and would ask our friends to give some extracts a careful per- usal, and see if the same may not be true of our own:

SPELLING AND READING.

My visits in all sections of the State have strengthened the conviction that spelling and reading should be made very much more promi- nent studies with the younger pupils in our schools. Spelling is often the last exercise of the session, and not unfrequently is deferred till after the proper "school-time," when, in the weariness of the pupils, and their eagerness for the expected and yet delayed "dismissal," and the consequent haste of the teacher, a lesson which in anticipa- tion of such a contingency has been poorly pre- pared, is still worse conducted. Instead of being thus crowded to the last hurried moments of the session, spelling should hold the front rank, the post of honor, certainly in the lower grade of schools. No lesson deserves to be more thorough- ly studied and carefully heard. The aim of the recitation should not be, as it so commonly is in practice, to cultivate the Yankee shrewdness of the scholar in guessing, with the privilege of try- ing on each word, as in a riddle or conundrum, till he "gives it up." One trial is better than a score of guesses, both to decide whether the pupil has mastered the lesson, and to insure its study in fu- ture. With beginners spelling should be the chief exercise, commenced before they have completed the alphabet, by printing every word on the slate and blackboard, a useful and pleasant exercise, even for abecedarians. I find, however, many Primary Schools not furnished with slates, and sometimes without blackboards.

Alike for spelling and drawing, printing words, and cultivating both the eye and the hand, the slate, and best of all the "drawing slate," with

appropriate copies and pictures on the frame, should be furnished to all, especially the youngest scholars. Many committees and teachers have been easily persuaded during the last year to supply the Primary Schools under their charge with slates and blackboards. I have found many school houses with blackboards so small and placed so high as to be serviceable only for the teacher, and others entirely without blackboards. Some teachers and committees even believed blackboards altogether unnecessary in Primary Schools. From some of these very teachers I have afterwards received grateful acknowledgements for the personal efforts with committees which secured ample blackboards, with the assurance that they have materially aided in government as well as instruction, keeping children both pleasantly and profitably occupied.

Increasing observation confirms my belief that the art of spelling may be essentially completed under ten or twelve years of age. In early life the memory is circumstantial, and naturally and easily grasps items, details, words and their forms. In later years, while the memory grows more tenacious of principles, comprehensive facts and general truths, it retains such minutiae with difficulty.

Instead of being a monotonous and mechanical drill, spelling, by a great variety of methods, should be made an attractive and intellectual exercise; pursued not merely to learn the literal elements of words, but for the higher aim of cultivating the eye and conceptive faculty, acquiring the power to bring before the mind's eye the *form of a word as a unit*, as it looks on the printed page, just as one would so carefully examine a robin, a dog, a rose or a picture, as to be able vividly to recall the image of the object. It is a great and most important art to *see* so accurately, that one's conceptions of visible objects may ever be as clear and distinct as were the original perceptions. This process early developed in spelling may be repeated at will in reference to any objects of perception and description, and thus the child gains a new and invaluable power, which enters into all the graver operations of the mind in natural science, history, poetry and the fine arts.

The rules for spelling derivatives are not very commonly learned in our schools, or if memorized, they are not comprehended and practically applied. Certainly a large share of the bad spelling which I have witnessed is chargeable to a neglect of these rules.

READING.

Next to spelling, and in comparison with its importance, no subject seems to me so much neglected and so poorly taught in a large proportion of our schools as reading. There are many schools which deserve high commendation for their proficiency in this department, where this fundamental excellence plainly infuses new interest into every

other study, and elevates the whole school. Their superiority makes the prevailing defects seem more glaring and needless, and demonstrates the wisdom and necessity of reform. What a revolution would be seen in our higher schools and with all advanced classes, if the dreaded and misnomered "drudgery" of spelling and the difficulties of mere reading—I do not here speak of elocution—were completed under ten or twelve years of age. This is the surest method to facilitate all other and higher studies, for early mastery of reading fosters a love of learning and fondness for books, while aversion to study and hatred of school are often produced by tasking children in grammar and higher studies before they can read and understand them with facility. Once implant a love of reading, and you have a strong pledge of scholarship through life.

Too long and too difficult reading lessons are often assigned to children—selections of an abstract or didactic nature, when they can appreciate only the concrete and descriptive. Dialectics are too strong meat to be either savory or digestible while the reflective faculties are yet undeveloped. I have often found "the first class" of ten or a dozen in a district school, after repeating the words of some abstruse essay mechanically, as if in an unknown tongue, not only unable to analyse it, but even to repeat or suggest a single thought from the whole selection. No reading lesson is properly selected and studied unless the pupil can tell in his own words the substance of the story or description. This can hardly be expected when the "Sixth Reader," or the highest of the series, whatever it may be, designed for advanced pupils in High Schools and Academies, is the reading book of so many young and poor readers in our common schools. One poorly compensates for the loss of progress by thus gratifying the pride of promotion.

EXPULSION FROM SCHOOLS.

This punishment is doubtless sometimes necessary, but it is too common an occurrence, and should be inflicted only in extreme cases as a dernier resort. I have found boys expelled from school who seemed to me neither vicious nor incorrigible nor malicious; whose offences were venial rather than "mortal," originating in heedlessness, love of fun, restlessness, stupidity, or aversion to study, rather than sullenness and depravity; whom milder measures might restrain and stimulate to studiousness and fidelity. Instead of operating as a reformatory measure, a hasty expulsion sometimes awakens a sense of injury and a spirit of retaliation, and involves that disgrace and loss of self-respect which weaken the restraints of virtue. This measure is occasionally adopted as a cheap riddance of trouble, a cowardly retreat from difficulties which a courageous and earnest spirit would meet and master. "That rascally John ——," said a teacher, "if I could

get rid of him, this would be an easy school to govern." I replied, "John's recitation is enough to show that he is a bright boy. Give him a fair trial. Here is a chance to test your teaching tact and skill, and win an important victory. Study John till you can so thoroughly read him as to find some unexplored avenue to his heart, some latent sense of right or honor, or some good point whereby you may encourage him. In some way get on the right side of him, visit his parents, enlist their coöperation, and by one or all of these measures you may save him." "I'll try," was the response, and not long after word came from that faithful teacher, "John is now one of my best boys." So many scholars within my knowledge have been dismissed in disgrace whom gentler influences might have reclaimed, and sometimes expelled by the teacher while in a passion, and at heart more culpable than the pupil, that I have grown bold in imploring teachers never to abandon any boy as a "hopeless case," until they have exhausted all the measures which skill and kindness can wisely employ.

A quiet moral power ought to reign in the school-room, rather than coercive and extreme measures. Its influence is more happy, effective and permanent. True wisdom and skill in school government consists in the prevention rather than the punishment of offences; in interesting and occupying pupils, cultivating the better feelings of their nature,—truthfulness, generosity, kindness and self-respect. Refined manners, winning tones and an earnest spirit will exert a peculiar sway even upon the rudest and most unmannerly youth. There is a silent power in the very face of a teacher beaming with love for his pupils and enthusiasm in his noble work.

PREMATURE GRADUATION

is a serious evil in our schools. Too many close their books and "finish their education" when that great work ought to be regarded as just begun. Not unfrequently children are permanently withdrawn from school at twelve years, and sometimes at a still earlier age. The law in regard to the employment of children in manufacturing establishments, although admitted to be wise and important, is not faithfully executed, especially in some of our smaller manufacturing towns. There are not a few agents, overseers and owners of mills who are to-day liable to the just penalty of this law. I have often had occasion to remind school committees that the general statutes made it their duty to "prosecute for all such forfeitures." Some children are kept from school at a very tender age to engage in branches of industry not dignified with the name of manufactures, carried on in small shops or private families—such as closing shoes and braiding straw. This early withdrawal of children has become a common as well as a great evil. The small portion of children who complete the full course in the high or even gram-

mar schools of our cities, indicates the same tendency to finish their education when that great work ought to be regarded as just begun. This premature graduation proves to many an injury lasting as life, closing against them the doors to the highest and noblest sciences, the most important and practical topics, those best fitted to liberalize and expand the mind, and which are indispensable to any thing like a complete common school education. In education as in architecture—such is the relation between the foundation and the finishing, the preparation and the completion—that the same time and effort seem to accomplish at the close, manifold greater results than at the beginning. Thus a more marked change in mental character often seems to be wrought during the last year of a full school-course than during any two or three previous years.

THE USE OF KEYS IN ARITHMETIC

is a common evil in our schools. In theory they profess to be designed for teachers only, but the booksellers in some towns affirm that the demand for them nearly equals the sale of the corresponding text-books. Whatever may be said of the convenience or necessities of teachers, there can be no defence of their use by pupils. They prevent thoroughness and self-reliance, defeat the primary purpose of education, and directly foster indolence, superficiality and conceit.

TRUANCY AND ABSENTEEISM.

No fact connected with our public schools has impressed me so sadly as the extent of truancy and non-attendance, and the strange apathy of the public as to this fruitful form of juvenile crime. This great evil calls loudly for a remedy. In a few towns the laws in reference to truants and absentees from school are faithfully executed, and with the happiest results, while in others these laws are overlooked or utterly disregarded. Though I have often elsewhere invited attention to this subject, as one vital to the prosperity of the Commonwealth, the extent and dangerous tendency of absenteeism seems to claim consideration in this connection.

The ratio of the mean average attendance to the whole number of children between five and fifteen, is seventy-four one-hundredths; less than three-fourths of the whole number of children returned. It is true the attendance has been gradually improving for a period of years; but after making due allowance for private schools, a sad deficiency remains, and far greater progress is demanded. The general statutes make it the imperative duty of truant officers and school committees to secure the enforcement of the law concerning attendance upon school. They are not, as is so commonly done, "to wait for information to be given to them of neglect of duty by parents and guardians, but they should discover and inquire into all such cases, and pursue the delinquents according to the requirements of law." School com-

mittees can render no more important service to the public than by combining their own efforts, and enlisting the cooperation of their several constituents to repress this alarming evil. Besides its tendency to sow the seeds of vice and crime, this imperfect attendance greatly lessens the advantages which our schools would otherwise confer on the community, while it does not at all diminish their cost. In the case of irregular attendance, the loss in improvement and instruction is clearly much greater in proportion than the loss of time.

The evil is obvious and serious, and the practical question is, what is its cause, and what the remedy? There is one class of truants, newsboys, "street-gleaners," and others, without parents or responsible guardians, almost homeless and friendless, whom kindness and charity might easily reclaim. There are also three classes of parents who encourage and extend the evil in question.

1. Those who seem to have no appreciation of the advantages of education, and therefore needlessly keep their children at home. In such families the opportunities of home education are of course most meagre.

2. Those who are unable, or who seem to think they are too poor, to clothe their children decently.

3. There is also a considerable number, especially among our foreign population, who keep their children at home to work the year round. It has been to me a painful necessity to find little children of eight, seven, and even six years, kept out of school, at closing shoes, or other "home manufacturing," to support their parents in idleness and intemperance. I am sorry to be compelled to add, that there are others so greedy of gain that they needlessly confine their little children at work as soon as they can earn the smallest wages, to the entire neglect of their education. Were it not attested by personal observation, it would seem to me incredible that any parents would be willing thus to impoverish their own children's minds for the sake of enriching their purses. I would by no means disparage or undervalue labor. Every child, rich or poor, should learn to work in some useful calling, and best of all, if possible, at farming—a pursuit which is itself a most important educator. One's mental discipline is incomplete until he has acquired that common sense drill, that habit of adapting means to ends, which is best secured in addition to school culture, by testing his skill in manual labor.

With the first class of parents, and indeed with all, very much may be done by personal influence and persuasion. Let both teachers and committees visit them, urge upon their consideration the great importance of education to their children, turn their attention to the privileges furnished them in the public schools, and by every persuasive, encourage them to avail themselves of these advantages, and the effect in most cases will be

successful. On this subject I do not merely theorize. I have tried the experiment with happy results, and can point to many instances of youth thus rescued from the contagion and contamination of the street school, who are now regular attendants and diligent pupils in our schools or useful and virtuous citizens. How amply have these humble services been afterwards compensated by their grateful acknowledgments, or by tears of joy more eloquently bespeaking their cherished remembrance of timely aid and counsel.

Teachers have rare opportunities of reclaiming erring youth, and thus winning their lasting gratitude. Much can be accomplished in this direction by frequent and friendly conferences with parents. Indeed, there are not a few teachers who, in their untiring devotion to their duties, evince a genuine missionary spirit, and who, in addition to the labors of the school-room, "go about doing good" to the neglected youth within their reach; who regularly and personally report to parents every instance of truancy or serious delinquency, uniformly inquire into the causes of absence, visit pupils in sickness, and by various proofs of sympathy and interest, win the confidence and cordial cooperation of parents, even of those hitherto indifferent or captious. There are other teachers, whose theory and practice limit their duties to school hours and relieve them of all that care and labor outside of the school-room which are needful to prevent truancy and absenteeism.

With reference to the second class, where children are really destitute of comfortable clothing, and their parents are too poor to provide for them, their wants should enlist the sympathies of the benevolent. If committees would seek out and report these cases, such wants might be easily supplied by individual charities. In some towns which I have visited this has been frequently and cheerfully done. It is very commonly done every year, to enable the children of destitute parents to attend Sabbath schools. While I entertain the highest estimate of the usefulness of the Sabbath school, I believe the public school is still more important. The pupils are here brought for a longer time under salutary influence, and to a large number of our children, the common school furnishes the only means of moral, as well as intellectual culture.

But a work of so great importance should not be left to be done at random by occasional volunteers. The law assigns this work to the school committee, in towns where no special truant officers are appointed, and makes it their imperative duty to see that it is faithfully performed. While kindness and moral suasion should be the main reliance in all efforts to promote the welfare of truants and absentees from school, it will be found of essential service to the school committee to have some authority—some law with suitable sanctions, to fall back upon. In those cases where parents, without good reason, deprive their children of the

advantages of education, some coercion, like that contemplated in the general statutes, may properly be employed; although compulsion should be used with caution and only as a last resort, in those comparatively rare cases where all other means have failed. Wise as are the provisions of the statutes on this subject, earnest individual efforts will effect far more than any and all laws can do; while the existence of such a law, when sanctioned and sustained by a public sentiment alive to the importance of the subject, will add weight and authority to personal persuasions.

HIGH SCHOOLS

are by no means found in all towns where the general statutes require them to be maintained; while other towns, exempt from any legal necessity by reason of their more limited population, volunteer to support them. There is manifestly an increasing appreciation of those already in operation. In some cases, where the High School was established with great difficulty, its practical working has so fully demonstrated its value and necessity as to disarm all opposition and convert opponents to warm supporters. This fact is encouraging, when it is remembered how positively it was announced in a neighboring State four years since that the High Schools of even Massachusetts had failed to meet the expectations of their projectors, and that serious apprehensions were entertained of their ultimate success. It is largely due to the influence of these High Schools and the prevalence of juster views as to the wisdom and economy of educating the children of all classes, rich and poor, side by side in the public schools, that the number of Massachusetts children attending private schools and academies is steadily diminishing. Some of the most flourishing of these institutions receive a large share of their patronage from other States, and from those towns where the population is supposed to be too small or sparse to support High Schools. There are endowed academies well supplied with facilities for scientific instruction and finished classical culture, which merit and receive liberal support. It is characteristic of the disinterestedness and public spirit of teachers, that the principals of these institutions, whose private interests may ultimately suffer by the general elevation of public schools and the multiplication of High Schools, have been found, with very few exceptions, among the most earnest advocates of our public school system.

SCHOOL GYMNASTICS.

During the last year there has been a marked increase of interest in physical training, and some forms of gymnastics are now practiced in a large number of our schools. Committees and teachers need only to understand their simplicity and practical usefulness to welcome them more generally to the school-room. The common objection as to expense is purely imaginary. They can be and are widely introduced, without any cost for appa-

ratus or special instruction in this department. With the manuals and journals on this subject at hand, every teacher in fair health can, by a little study and practice, be prepared to conduct these exercises. Some of the best illustrations of physical training which I have witnessed, have been introduced by teachers who have been self-taught in this department. This remark is made not to disparage any system of gymnastics, but for the encouragement of that large proportion of teachers who hesitate to introduce these exercises in school, because they have had no opportunity to drill under a master of the art.

The influence of school gymnastics is obviously favorable to physical development. Many boys have increased their "chest measurement" two inches by these drills during the last year. Many more have regained the "lost art" of infancy—that of deep and full breathing—a habit as conducive to mental activity as to physical vigor. It is painful to observe how common in the school-room is a cramped and stooping posture, contracting the chest, impeding the free action of the heart and lungs, and frequently inviting pulmonary disease. Teachers need literally to *straighten* their pupils and emphatically to reiterate the direction, "sit up." School gymnastics, recurring at frequent intervals, even though occupying three or four minutes at a time, favor an upright posture in the seats, and a manly and graceful bearing at all times.

These gymnastic drills form a fit preparation for study, not only by recreating and invigorating the physical system, but by exhilarating and *stimulating the mind*. Indeed, in this respect all vigorous play and athletic sports help to educate the intellectual powers. But these concert drills are specially fitted to wake up mind, and habituate youth to exact and prompt obedience. Such an amusement demanding the utmost force and promptness in simultaneous movements responsive to the music of the piano, accordion or drum, or if no instrument is available, to the simple "air-beat" of the teacher's "baton," is often found one of the best expedients to stimulate and conciliate the lazy, the stupid or the sullen.

Success in study depends mainly on the culture of the will, or the power to control and concentrate all one's faculties at pleasure. Such discipline of the muscles as will enable one to summon every nerve and fibre into fullest exertion at any moment will aid in the command of the mental faculties.

As facts are more influential than theories, I would name one of many similar schools where it is evident these gymnastic exercises have been as favorable for mental improvement as for physical education. I refer to the Eliot school, in Boston. Considering the history of this school, and the early training and circumstances of the boys—many of them poor, and nearly all children of foreigners

—the manifest results of the admirable drills here daily practiced demonstrate the value and usefulness of such exercises in schools. Much is now very properly said of the necessity of providing military education for our youth. Now here, without cost for instruction or equipments, is the best possible preparation for the special military drill, if it be not the most available substitute therefor in our public schools. This view accords with the plan set forth in the able communication of Col. Harrison Ritchie to the legislature, "On Popular Military Instruction," from which I quote a single sentence:

"The point to be impressed upon all members of the militia is that the mere manual and tactics, however important, and absolutely necessary to be acquired at some period, can be easily learned in a comparatively short time, and are of secondary importance as compared with a knowledge of the use of the rifle, *and such a physical training as will fit the men for the requirements of the service.*"

Contributions.

THE following contributions have been received in compliance with a resolution passed at a recent meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, held at Carolina Mills, for the relief of the sick and wounded soldiers:

John J. Ladd, Classical Department High School, Providence.....	\$5 55
Wm. A. Mowry, English Department, do..	8 10
Samuel Thurber, Junior Department, do..	5 00
Miss E. B. Barnes, Carpenter Street Primary, Providence.....	1 16
F. B. C. Davis, Public School, Westerly...	55
S. A. Briggs, Public School, E. Greenwich,	3 00
Charles E. Howes, Public School, District No. 9, Westerly	42
P. T. Coggeshall, Public School, Portsmouth	1 25
J. W. Gorton, Public School, Peacedale...	91
H. E. Miner, Public School, Charlestown..	35
Miss I. F. Dixon, Public School, S. Kingstown	12
Mr. G. M. Bently, Pub. School. Hopkinton,	40
Miss S. M. Lillibridge, Public School, Richmond	16
Mr. A. A. Lillibridge.....do.....do.	22
F. B. Snow, Bridgham School, Providence.	6 13
M. A. Maynard, Dist. No. 2, Burrillville...	25
George W. Spalding, Natick,.....	1 84
Miss Kate Pendleton, No. 11, Watch Hill, Westerly.....	60
F. B. Smith, Valley Falls, Dist. No. 33....	3 75
Second Primary, Elmwood.....	50
H. H. Gorton, Dist. No. 15, Warwick,....	51
Miss E. A. Pierce, Summer Street Intermediate, Providence.....	1 51
W. H. Gifford, Middletown, Dist. No. 3,...	1 25
D. R. Adams, Public School, Centreville...	85
A Primary School, Providence,.....	1 52

W. C. Peckham, No. 11, Burrillville.....	36
Miss S. J. Bates, Primary, No. 11, do.....	36
Miss E. P. Cunliffe, Dist. No. 1, Warwick.	1 00
East District, Warren,.....	28
H. M. Rice, High School, Woonsocket....	75
Perley Verry, Grammar School, do.....	82
Miss A. Peck, Intermediate do...do.....	57
Miss B. J. Brown, Primary do...do.....	38
Miss E. Paine,.....do.....do.....do.....	40
Miss M. R. Brown, do.....do.....do.....	35
Miss Lucy Smith, do.....do.....do.....	73
N. W. DeMunn, Principal Benefit Street Grammar School, Providence,.....	3 06
Mary W. Armington, Graham Street Intermediate School, Providence,.....	1 12
Mary E. Anthony, Benefit Street Intermediate School, (one room,) Providence,.	50
Lizzie A. Davis and Susan R. Joslyn, Benefit Street Primary School, Providence,	63
J. H. Arnold, Portsmouth, District No. 5..	5 00
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Mr. J. H. Tefft, Kingstown,.....	50
Miss Mary M. Shelley, Primary, Ring St., Providence.....	62
Miss Maria Essex, Primary, Potter's Avenue, Providence	1 00
Miss Elizabeth Helme, Primary, Walling Street, Providence,.....	1 00
Miss Elizabeth B. Carpenter, Intermediate, Walling Street, Providence,.....	1 75
Mr. I. F. Cady, High School, Warren,....	3 12
Misses H. P. Martin and G. Buffinton, Primary, Warren,.....	1 03
Miss Davol's Private School, Warren.....	50
Miss A. W. Jackson, Primary, Summer St., Providence.....	1 80
Nathan B. Lewis, Richmond.....	25
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Miss Lydia C. Armstrong, Chepachet.....	1 00
Mr. T. T. Tucker, South Kingtown.....	35
Graham Street Primary, Providence.....	46
	\$66 35

Mount Vesuvius is now in a state of active eruption. Ten new craters are reported to be open. The roofs of houses in Naples are covered with ashes from it, and the cinders and soot reach even to Sicily.

A State Reform School was opened December 2d in California. J. C. Pelton is Superintendent.

Our Book Table.

METHOD OF TEACHERS' INSTITUTES, AND THE THEORY OF EDUCATION. By Samuel P. Bates. Published by A. S. Barnes & Burr, New York. Pp. 75.

We welcome to our table this volume from our old friend, Bates, upon Teachers' Institutes, giving a "detailed account of the object, organization and plan of instruction" for an Institute, and "the true theory of education upon which that instruction should be based."

While this little volume will be invaluable to those of our friends who have just been called upon to engage in school institutes, to those who have had much experience in such matters it will be suggestive.

We would particularly call attention to the Theory at the close of the book, when the great outlines of education are finely sketched.

We received a few days since a copy of Town and Holbrook's Progressive Primer, translated into the Hawaiian language. It is worthy of praise to the enterprising publishers, and we would here insert a notice which caught our eye in the *Boston Journal* a few days since, entitled, "School Text-Books." The writer remarks:

"Few individuals outside of the book business and the manufacturing of school books have any knowledge of the *modus operandi* of publishers in bringing their works into public notice and general use. Good text-books will gradually find their way into the school-room; practical teachers will adopt meritorious works, and once thoroughly tested success is sure to follow those who, after years of labor and patient waiting, have given evidence of their ability to write, providing persevering publishers are at the helm. Our attention has been called to a translation into the Hawaiian language, of Town and Holbrook's Progressive Primer, published by Bazin & Ellsworth, of this city. The style of the work throughout is fully equal to the English version, and we are pleased to learn that the entire series is being translated, for the use of the schools of the Sandwich Islands, into which the English series was introduced about a year since. We have no little pride in recording the fact that already these books in English may be found in many of the schools of the missionary stations in Asia, Africa, on the coast of Greenland, and among our own Indian settlements in the West. The name of Town has given a sufficient guaranty throughout New England, and to-day the publishers of the new series—the Progressive text-books—record two-thirds of all New England towns in which this series may be found in general use. The great success, however, in this branch of business, has been in employing practical teachers in the compilation of books for the use of children—men who know their wants and adapt each

book to the requirements of the pupil. The community, however, should discriminate between the old series by this author, and the new series, or the Progressive text-books, by Town and Holbrook—the latter not containing a single page of reading matter found in the other series. Publishers in other States are engaged in supplying schools with the old books, which have been long before the public, yet possessing much merit, and very generally used at the West.

The introduction and successful working of the Progressive series has cost the publishers, we are informed, through agency, books given away for examination, exchanges and book-war, not far from one hundred thousand dollars; and yet the whole series consists of only seven books, the smallest retailing for thirteen cents, and the higher book of the series at seventy-five cents."

FELLOW TEACHERS, do you ever purchase pictures? If you have an eye to the beautiful, and can spare but little of your *hard earnings* to gratify the sight, we would advise you to call on our friend, S. Clough, 32 Weybosset street, up-stairs, three blocks above the Post Office. He has a fine collection of splendid engravings of all the great men of our country, especially those who are periling their lives for the honor and perpetuity of our once glorious Union. Just think of getting an elegant steel-plate engraving and a very good writing case for thirty-eight cents! These plates were formerly published by the Art Union and sold at three dollars per copy. Stationery in packages, in boxes, &c., &c. Mr. C. is the agent of many of the best publications of New York, Philadelphia and Boston.

THE NATIONAL SPEAKER.—Containing Exercises, Original and Selected, in Prose, Poetry and Dialogue, for Declamation and Recitation. Published by Robert S. Davis & Co., Boston.

This book contains nearly all that is desirable on the subject of elocution for our public schools. The selections are nearly all *new*, (which cannot be said of the multitude of books of this character). We have often had occasion to use many of the principles laid down in this work, in our reading classes. Teachers, if you are looking for some good work on elocution, we would suggest that you place the above work on your list.

ROUND THE WORLD. By W. H. G. Kingston. Crosby & Nichols.

The true way to teach boys is to blend amusement with instruction. Amusement they will have, and they are fortunate who can instruct by amusing. This is the great secret of making good books for children, and the author of "Round the World" seems to have understood it, for he has given the boys a rare chance for entertainment in his new book. Read it, boys, and you will learn more of geography than in a hundred recitations at school.

We have received the forty-second and forty-third numbers of Chamber's Encyclopædia. We cannot say too much in favor of this beautiful work. We have often called the attention of our fellow-teachers to its excellence, and our only wonder is that any can afford to be without it. We select only one from among the many truthful testimonies of its value:

"Those world-renowned benefactors to the Republic of letters, William and Robert Chambers, not satisfied with the wholesale distribution of works upon many subjects admirably suited for the education of the public mind, have achieved a crowning triumph in their Encyclopædia, or Dictionary of Universal Knowledge for the people. Although constructed on the basis of the later edition of the famous Conversations-Lexicon, (which, by-the-bye, was also the basis of the Encyclopædia Americana.) this Encyclopædia is not to be considered a mere translation of that popular work. While the latter is placed under tribute where the treasure is likely to reward the trouble of transference, special contributors have aided in the illustration of those branches to which they had long directed their attention, and the geographical, statistical and other information respecting Great Britain and her colonies, the United States, etc., have been drawn from independent sources. Next to the fullness of this Encyclopædia, its remarkable cheapness will attract the attention of book buyers."—S. AUSTIN ALLIBONE, *Author of Dictionary of Authors.*

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.—This magazine has not shared the unfavorable influence which the war has had upon literature generally. Since the beginning of the year more than 10,000 copies have been added to its circulation,—a result at once highly satisfactory to its conductors and gratifying to the lovers of literature.

The conductors of the *Atlantic* accept this fact, as well as the unanimous verdict of the press for three months past, as an assurance that their magazine has reached a point of excellence which it has never before attained. They will not, however, pause in their efforts on this account, but will constantly strive to advance the standard already established. To this end they will go on in the same path which has lately been followed, and through which the *Atlantic* has been led to such general acceptance. The same thoughtful and patriotic political papers, from the best prose writers, will continue to lend power and dignity to its pages; and favorite poets will evolve from the ever-shifting phases of our national affairs the lessons of the hour. The two great *serial* features which have so firmly fixed public attention—Professor Agassiz's popular expositions of the science of Natural History, and James Russell Lowell's "*Biglow Papers*"—will be continued each month. *Still other features of extraordinary interest have*

been provided for the forthcoming numbers, and the conductors will always seek to present in the pages of the *Atlantic* the best and freshest thought upon all topics.

THE attractive table of contents of the March *Atlantic* is:—The Fruits of Free Labor in the Smaller Islands of the British West Indies, by C. L. Brace; A Story of To-day, by the author of "Life in the Iron Mills"; Mountain Pictures, by J. G. Whittier; The Use of the Rifle, by H. W. S. Cleveland; Agnes of Sorrento, by Mrs. Stowe; Methods of Study in Natural History, by Prof. Agassiz; The Southern Cross, by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney; Concerning the Sorrows of Childhood, by the "Country Parson"; The Rehabilitation of Spain, by C. C. Hazewell; A Raft that No Man Made, by R. T. S. Lowell; Fremont's Hundred Days in Missouri, by W. Dorsheimer; Birdofredum Sawin, Esq., to Mr. Hosea Biglow, by J. R. Lowell; Taxation, by Edward Everett; Voyage of the Good Ship Union, by Dr. Holmes; Reviews and Literary Notices.

HARPERS' MAGAZINE FOR MARCH has been received. In addition to the attractions of Thackeray and Trollope, the present number is rich in variety. Read its table of contents:—Turkey and Russia, by J. S. C. Abbott; A Summer Reminiscence; How the Dutch are Taking Holland Cured; Orley Farm; An Orthopterian Defence; A Drawn Game; A Soldier's Letters; William Cullen Bryant; Early Secessionists; The Bronze Statue; Adventures of Philip; Mistress and Maid; Fish Culture; The Artillerist.

Isn't that a variety for one month? To all purchasers of periodicals and papers, we take pleasure in recommending the store of N. B. Williams, where is to be found at the earliest season anything desirable.

THE BEAR HUNTERS OF THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS.—This is the title of a new book by Anne Bowman, published by Crosby & Nichols, of Boston. We have not been able to examine it carefully, but from what we have seen we pronounce it just the book for boys, giving them the healthy excitement of the chase, and introducing them to the wildness and grandeur of our Western territories.

THE PULPIT AND THE ROSTRUM. No. 29 contains an Oration by George Bancroft, on the 22nd of February, 1862. To which is added Washington's Farewell Address. Published by E. D. Barker, 135 Grand street, New York. Price, 8 cents.

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This work, similar in style to that of the "Golden Wreath," has rapidly attained a wide popularity. It contains, in addition to attractive lessons and exercises, over 200 Songs, comprising many of the latest, many of which are not found in any other book.

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EXERCISE SONG BOOK. Containing Songs and Rounds, with Physical Exercises. Designed for the use of Primary Schools. By Asa Fitz. 12c.

The exercises in this book are intended mostly for the amusement of little children, in order to relieve their minds of a tedious routine of school-room duties. Many of them, when well-performed, are excellent for the development of their physical powers.

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COOKE & DANIELSON, PUBLISHERS,
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1862,

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engraver in his art and strive to imitate him. He has just the same number of letters to form as the writer has,—twenty-six small letters and twenty-six capitals, fifty-two in all. Now how does he set about his work? He takes one letter at a time and overcomes all the difficulties which lie in the way, whether they consist in imperfect conception of forms or inaccuracy of muscular movement. Determination and application will overcome all hindrances. And, as the engraver knows that his remuneration, his livelihood, depends upon the character of his work, he does not leave a single letter till he has perfected himself in the execution of it. And thus he goes on with each and every letter and character till each is perfected; having no regard to their grouping into words, till the elements of each word and letter are all mastered. In like manner, if the pupil who is learning to write would study each character he is to make in all its parts, in curve and shade, till he is master of all its details, then he would be prepared to use the pen skillfully in reproducing the characters.

The greatest difficulties in every undertaking lie at the very beginning, in the failure to conceive the object to be attained, and to comprehend the steps to be taken to secure the end. Therefore it should be the inflexible rule of every teacher of writing, that no step should be taken till the object to be accomplished is well defined and a plan formed and the whole fully explained to the pupil; and then let the pupil be held rigidly to the execution of the same.

The want of such a system, or *some* system at least, I believe is the reason why we have so few good or even passable writers in our schools, while we have multitudes of indifferent, bungling and illegible ones. The most studied determination could not more effectually prevent the forming a good hand in writing than the course generally pursued. I am warranted in thus judging from the fact that in some few places different results are uniformly obtained.

In Boston, for instance, a very large proportion of the pupils in the public schools become good writers and many acquire a finished hand. Now the cause does not lie in the latitude or longitude of the place, nor in the mental or physical ability of the children over those of other places; but in the care bestowed on them by their teachers in an intelligent and systematic manner, aided, perhaps, by a strong public opinion. I believe that a child who is old enough to write may be properly trained to

write a very fair hand in one year, spending many years to little or no a

In a subsequent article I will give some details of the elementary teaching writing.

For the Schoolmaster.

Which is More Lovely, Water or Scenery?

WHAT sight is there more noble than
vast expanse?
Or the gentle brooklet's mirror pure
silvery glass?
Than water scenes what can exist more
and fair
Beneath the flashing canopy in the free
air?

What more majestic or sublime,
In any land, in any clime?
How holy throbs the heart of man
Where the blue sky doth ocean's

There's a solemn cast o'er ocean's face
its mildest mood,
As beautiful when tempest lashed as
zephyrs wooed,
As glorious in its rippling calm as
foaming might
It folds each gallant swift-winged bar
palls pearly white.

'Tis eloquence too rich for earth,
It claims from the "I Am" its birth
'Tis far too high for man to reach
The very billows seem to teach.

Nor yet less lovely, though more mild
cascade's fall
With tinted rainbows quivering bright
'mid fairy hall.
Pure crystal showers glide flashing o'er
of stone,
And beauty unobtrusive shines from man's
dome.

Man's lost upon the ocean hoar,
Man quakes before Niagara's roar
But in the gentler water scenes
The harbinger of mercy beams.

Earth's pictures too are not less bold as
sea-views vie,
And nothing can exceed her scenes but
spangled sky,
There's grandeur on the rocky mountain
in the dale;
There's splendor e'en on Etna's peak
glacier vale.

Earth's paintings are forever new
And neither common-place nor false
Here, here it is the loved ones dwell
And hallow e'en her loveliest dell

The prairie's rolling slope of wealth, as fain the
eye would trace

Some line to mark its vast extent, bears on its no-
ble face

The impress of the Master-hand, that stretched
its emerald lake

Far o'er the earth to glad the eye and bid man's
soul awake.

Is ocean, with its solemn dirge,
To be compared with prairie's surge?
Can silver runnel be more fair
Than Flora's child 'neath soft spring air?

But sweet earth has some holy spots, whose pre-
cincts sanctified

None ever visit but they wish e'en longer to abide.

'Tis there that land and sea unite their panoramas
vast,

And solemn, mystic thoughts arise where peace
o'er all is cast.

We meet with them in daily life,
'Mid care and tumult, noise and strife,
They point us to the land of rest;
Such scenes then brightest are and best.

From the Ohio Educational Monthly.

Primary Instruction.

BY JAMES M. ROSS.*

If I were asked by an inexperienced teacher for a set of rules that would insure success if persistently followed, I would answer: In the first place, always be exceedingly careful to impart instruction in language suited to the capacity of your pupils, and in the second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, *ad infinitum*, let system characterize every effort.

Everything should be presented in a plain, simple manner, and if possible, illustrated by pictures and drawings, the more deeply to interest and rivet the attention. The ordinary screeching, sing-song manner of recitation, too often allowed among abecedarians, not unfrequently creates a disgust for the school that well directed effort cannot wholly overcome. I verily believe that we cannot place too high an estimate on the first lessons in education. It is just as easy to cultivate distinct articulation, correct pronunciation and proper taste in reading as the imperfections and inaccuracies that carelessness produces; and the one is just as sure to cling to us through life as the other.

Habitual kindness, a smooth musical voice and a pleasant face are qualifications that every teacher should strive to attain, if she does not already possess them. When I say a pleasant

face, I mean one that the children can look at without its exciting any fear or repulsion. One who contracts her brows and puts on the terrible, in order to hold her school in check, cuts an extremely ridiculous figure before those whose manners she is expected to polish. And when her tones lose their feminine sweetness and imitate those of the opposite sex, another fatal mistake is made, for which no amount of zeal and perseverance can atone. The teacher is regarded by her pupils as the embodiment of all that is good and worthy of imitation; consequently, lasting impressions are made for good or evil, according as she is judicious or injudicious in her daily walk and conversation in their presence.

The ostensible purpose of a recitation is to impart instruction as well as to effect a permanent lodgment in the mind, of whatever was required to be prepared. There is a pernicious habit that many teachers unwillingly fall into, the absurdity of which is palpable enough. It consists of a sort of pantomimic performance during the recitation, intended to indicate to the pupil whether or not it is answering correctly. The habit also of supplying the word when a pupil hesitates in answering a question is equally objectionable. Teach self-reliance from the first day a child enters school, and it will be the better for it through life. Methods of instruction are diversified, but the one we understand best and for which we entertain the highest confidence will always reward us with the greatest success.

In order to be fully understood, I will endeavor to be as practical as possible in what I have to say. It is not enough that children learn to pronounce all the words that are found on the cards and copy letters neatly when written on the board. Let the script hand be commenced at the very outset and until the pupils are put into the First Reader, devote one-half of each recitation to writing. In this way bad habits, in forming and connecting the letters and in holding the pencil, may be avoided.

I would have as few sentences as could be constructed to employ all of the words on Card No. 1 (or in its absence the first twenty lessons of the First Reader) printed upon the board, placing the easiest one first. Select a word from the first sentence and print the first letter of it upon the black-board. Explain the manner in which it is formed, as for example: d is a straight line down with half an o on the left hand side at the bottom, and require the class

*Principal Fifth District School, Cincinnati, O.

to repeat after you. Continue to print that letter and have them tell how it is formed, until each member of the class can give it verbatim. [Why not have them print the letter also?—Ed. of *O. E. M.*] Special care should be taken that each pupil articulates the letter distinctly. Require them, individually, to point it out wherever found in the first, second, third, etc., lines of the card or on each page of the First Reader. Proceed in like manner with the other letter or letters of the word. Let the class spell it in concert and singly. The names of the letters are a matter of memory, just as much as the names of the digits or the combination of any two of them. It is impossible for most children to remember them until after innumerable repetitions. A double advantage is gained by concert exercises, viz: the recollection of the names of the letters, and their sounds when used together to represent a word. As a general rule, let no word be passed until every member of the class can recognize it at sight, and spell and pronounce it properly.

Teach each of the other words that make up the sentence in the same manner, being careful to arrange, miscellaneously, all of the letters that have been taught, and devote a portion of each recitation to their recital. Require them, singly and in concert, to pronounce in a clear, distinct voice each of the words of the sentence separately, backward and forward. Explain in simple terms the rising and falling inflections, and give them daily practice upon each. Show them by means of examples, that certain words are required to be spoken more forcibly than others, and exercise them orally upon little sentences until they grasp the idea of emphasis and remember the term by which you designate it. Continue your instruction upon the first sentence until every member can read it intelligently. This may seem like a waste of time, for it cannot be accomplished in a day, nor in a week, but it has been my experience that whatever we have to do, it is greatly to the interest of our schools to have it done effectively. Although the first sentence, under this plan, requires a long time, each succeeding one will demand much less, until finally, when your pupils are admitted to the mysteries of the First and Second Readers, you will find that most if not all of the serious difficulties that have been experienced, have disappeared.

Before being transferred to the First Reader, it is customary to require pupils to pronounce with remarkable facility. Much of this is fre-

quently acquired only by rote, the pernicious effects of which may be traced through the First and Second Readers. I have broken up this routine by requiring the class, sometimes singly and, to vary the exercise, at other times in concert, to spell the words of the reading lesson in their natural order and then in the reverse order. The readiness with which they go through this exercise will always furnish ample evidence as to its preparation. In the beginning of every lesson, let the vowel sounds be given by the class.

That reading is poorly taught in most schools is no doubt attributable to the fact, that it is generally believed that it comes by nature, without special effort or training on the part of teachers. The same opinion was formerly entertained in regard to writing, but the progress that has recently been made in our schools in penmanship has exploded that false notion. If, by any possibility, the mass of our teachers could be made to realize that reading, to be creditably taught, requires more study and a more critical preparation than everything else combined, the progress of our schools would be as marked in this branch as it has been in others. It may seem to many teachers, foolish and unprofitable to spend time in the preparation of lessons in the First and Second Readers, but let me assure you and all, it is a duty you owe not only to your pupils but also to yourselves. Study every sentence. Determine the emphatic words, the inflections, the proper tone of voice and practice until you can render the piece artistically. Never leave it until you are satisfied that you can read it with proper expression. You are then, and not until then, prepared to appear before your class and instruct them. You are then prepared to give them the proper reading and require them to imitate, no difference who happens to be present. It is exceedingly embarrassing to attempt to worry through a recitation before persons of acknowledged or supposed ability, when you have neglected this highest duty—self-preparation—and consequently feel your inability even to interest your pupils, much less persons of cultivated tastes. I have known of teachers spending hours in the preparation of lessons in the First and Second Readers—without considering it any humiliation—and I have observed that the proficiency of their classes amply repaid them for their trouble. It is in vain that children are told to give the rising inflection here and the falling there; to emphasize this word or that one; to read this portion slow-

ly and that with animation, unless the teacher is prepared to give the example.

It is steady, persevering effort that insures success. Lead your pupils on step by step, patiently awaiting the natural development of mind, but always endeavoring to make everything so plain and simple, that the naturally rugged pathway may be the more easily travelled. Let forbearance, patience and perseverance be resolved upon every morning, and the harvest of good that will follow will amply repay you.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Chapter from Richter.

[We would like to introduce the readers of THE SCHOOLMASTER to a more intimate acquaintance with Richter's *Levana* than will be possible by now and then translating a passage. With unimportant exceptions, his entire works still remain sealed in their native German; doubly sealed, besides, in the intricacies of a style, which constantly leads the amateur translator into mazes of rhetorical figures and strange oddities of speech, for the clear rendering of which, the resources of the English dictionary are utterly inadequate. But it is purest gold that is obtained by diligent mining in Richter: and no earnest student of the German can afford to leave this vein unexplored. One must study the descriptive sketches in which Carlyle and DeQuincey portray this wonderful man to English readers. He combines the qualities, usually thought the very opposites of each other, of philosophical depth and sparkling humor. I have never found such intense sympathy with everything human, as in the pages of Richter. His books always leave the remarkable impression that they are the natural utterances of the author, and reveal a soul which love, simplicity, wisdom and genius qualify for the high office of teacher of men. While in the novels, which form the most considerable part of his works, Richter writes for all persons of liberal culture, in the "*Levana, or Doctrine of Education*," he especially addresses parents and educators, or, indeed, all who have deep interest in the welfare of children. Since we have known this book, we have regarded it as the best we have met on the subject of education, adding, as it does, to Rousseau's contempt of scholastic pedantry. — which, in the *Emile*, only sneers and complains, — a geniality, a glow of friendliness, and a sympathy, which enlist the fullest confidence in the author's heart. The *Levana* is not didactic. Being a work of geni-

us, its influence must rather be of a magnetic nature. So remote is its spirit from that which seems to prevail among our teachers, that we doubt whether a translation of the book would find any other reception than the standard sneer with which the cunning heads of our profession have learned to condemn whatever seems to them *unpractical*.

The chapter on *Dancing* cannot, of course, fitly represent the whole of so good a book; but, trivial as is the topic, its treatment is extraordinary and characteristic.—T.]

ON TEACHING CHILDREN TO DANCE.

It is not easy to say whether children's balls are more to be detested, or children's dancing more to be praised. The former, — in the presence of the dancing-mater, — in the company of spectators or of fellow-dancers — in the hot climate of the ball-room, and among its hot products — are, at best, the primary lessons and the first steps in the dance of death. The *dances* of children, on the other hand, are worthy of all commendation.

As the first language long precedes grammar, so should dancing long precede, and prepare for, the *art* of dancing. If a father has an old piano-forte, or an old violin, or a flute, or a good voice for improvising, he ought to call together his own children and the neighbors', and let them, for an hour or two every day, skip and whirl about to his orchestra, — in pairs, — hand-in-hand in rows, — in rings, — very often alone, — they themselves singing the while, like self-operating barrel-organs, — and completely at their own will. In the child joy dances still, while in the man it, at best, smiles or weeps. The mature man may, in the dance, express only the beauty of the art, not himself and his feeling. Love would express itself too rudely, and joy too loud and boldly, before the stern Nemesis. In the child body and soul are still living through their honeymoon in harmony, and the rejoicing body still leaps after the happy soul: ere long they quit each other's bed and board, and at last forsake each other utterly. Later still, the gentle zephyr of contentment no longer shows itself by turning the heavy metal vane.

Children are Farrer's watches, which always wind themselves, if you only go with them. As in the ancient astronomy, eleven of their heavens are in motion, and only one — that of sleep — is fixed. But only those dances which require movements in curves are easy enough for the child: running in a straight line will be too dif-

difficult till he has reached the period of youth. As to the heavenly bodies, so to the bodies of children belong the *movement of the spheres*, and their music withal; while the older body, like water, takes the straight course, and shall march forward like a soldier to an assault. To explain more clearly:—woman, every one knows, cannot run, but only dance; and any woman could more easily journey over a monotonous road, dancing, than riding. Now, children are diminutive women, at least boys are, although girls are often only diminutive boys. Among all movements dancing is the easiest, because it is the most limited and the most multifarious: hence the jubilee is represented, not by a runner, but by a dancer: hence the lazy savage dances, and the negro slave, weary with toil, dances, in order to excite himself by means of action to new action again: hence the runner has oftener fallen dead, other things being equal, than the dancer. Hence camels and armies and oriental laborers perform their tasks more easily to the sound of music, not principally because the music is cheering, — for this effect could easily be produced by other enjoyments, — but because the music sounds even the straight movement to a circular dance and to its returning rhythm. As in a chain of argumentative or of historical reasoning, every exertion prepares us for a severer one, while the zigzag of epigrams drives us every minute to a new start, and leap, so, physically, the case is the same in running and walking, in which, up hill and down hill, no effort furnishes the motive for the following one, but the greatest and the slightest succeed each other at random: while, on the other hand, dancing, without aim and compulsion, reproduces the same motion out of itself, and makes not the continuance, but the cessation, difficult. Every race must soon end; but not so with the dance. What better movement could there be, therefore, for children's exercise than this constantly recurring one, especially since children are still more excitable and more easily exhausted than women? Running, walking on stilts and climbing strengthen and harden single powers and muscles; while, on the other hand, dancing, as a physical poetry, both spares and also exercises and equalizes all the muscles.

Moreover, music imparts to body and soul the metrical order, which further develops what is highest in our nature, and disposes pulse-beats, steps and thoughts. Music is the metre of this poetical motion, an invisible dance, as the latter is a dumb music. Finally, it also be-

longs to the advantages of this delight of the eyes and heels, that children by no stricter can on than the musical one, are united to each other in a feast of rose-buds without the thorns or quarrel.

In short, dancing cannot come early enough "but the dancing-master will more easily come too early than too late." The latter clause stands in the first edition. More correctly, perhaps, I ought to have written singing-master instead of dancing-master, because connoisseurs declare that by too early exercise the voice is spoiled. The first edition was right, only in so far as it recommended that those children that have been educated in a conceited desire to please, should be withdrawn from dancing-master, who reduces to a strict system of rules the desire to please by means of the bodily graces. On the other hand, the second edition is also right in adding, that better-trained children who, as late as their eighth or ninth year, know instead of vanities, only the law of the good and the beautiful, may be led to the music of the dancing-master's fiddle, and in obedience to his rules, — compounded of trifles though these be, — without danger to their higher nature; and that the best time for this will be the earlier years when they learn dancing quite as much without conceit as they do walking and reading. To such children, who suffer the torture that is inflicted on goats, — when their tendons are cut to prevent leaping, — the dancing-lesson may still become an hour of freedom and play.

From the Connecticut Common School Journal.
Religious Instruction.

MUCH has been said, recently, to show teachers the importance of moral lessons in the school-room, — and almost all, doubtless, are convinced of their excellence. They furnish an opportunity for implanting correct moral sentiments in the child's soul, and at the same time, by varying the ordinary round of exercises, awaken a fresh interest in his school-life. Yet still the Christian teacher sometimes feels the necessity for something higher and beyond even this. As he thinks of the blessed lessons which the Great Teacher, Him of Nazareth, taught he would fain follow humbly in the same glorious pathway, and lead his pupils to the same peaceful home.

But how to impart appropriate religious instruction, amid the hurrying pressure of school duties, it is often difficult to decide. It must be skilfully done, occupying only a few moments

at a time, or it will weary the pupils, and fail of accomplishing the desired end. The great Book of Nature —

"Earth with her thousand voices praising God,"—

will furnish a prolific source from which to draw such lessons. It is true that some eyes never drink in the ravishing beauties which surround them, and some souls never thrill beneath their power.

"The rill is tuneless to his ear, who feels
No harmony within; the south wind steals
As silent as unseen among the leaves:
Who has no inward beauty, none perceives,
Though all around is beautiful."

But let this inward sense of beauty first be developed, and then it will be easy to point upward to the Great Author of so much loveliness. This sense of instruction is so boundless, that a teacher may draw from it lessons appropriate to all its peculiar surroundings. When God smiles in the flowers and blesses with the genial sunshine and refreshing breeze, we may talk pleasantly of his goodness; when He frowns in the tempest and thunders in the storm, we may speak of His wondrous power; yea, from every form in His vast gallery of wonders, Nature, we may find a pleasant pathway up to its Maker.

In the devotional exercises of the school-room, if rightly conducted, there is much religious instruction. They should not be long, cold and formal, as though it were a disagreeable duty which must be performed, but short, fervent and overflowing with warmth. Suppose it is a cold winter's morning, and a snow-storm rages without, let these beautiful passages from the 147th Psalm be read:

"He giveth his snow like wool: he scattereth his hoar-frost like ashes.

"He casteth forth his ice like morsels: who can stand before his cold.

"He sendeth out his word, and melteth them: he causeth his wind to blow, and the waters flow,"

and then let a few earnest words be spoken, and the school led to the throne of grace in a simple, soul-felt prayer of praise for mercies received, and pleadings for needed strength and blessings. A studied formality of expression is not required, but instead the words should come welling up from the heart, as though the exercise were a part of your very being. Then a spirit of reverence will be awakened in the pupils, and they, with you, will feel the presence of the Invisible One. The angel of peace

will descend, and shed his benediction through the room. Impressions will be made which will never fade. Seed will be sown which shall never die. In coming years the memory of these hallowed morning hours may return to some heart, perchance wandering in paths of darkness, and lead it back to God.

The daily deportment of a teacher will be either a powerful aid or a great hindrance in the work of imparting religious instruction. If he is careless, impatient and fretful, his teachings will fall almost powerless. But if his bearing is patient and gentle, his words kind and earnest, and his religion an apparent *living reality*, even his very presence itself will be a potent lesson,—and from it will daily go forth a hundred unconscious but blessed influences.

It is not expected, nor would it be proper, that much time should be taken up by special religious instruction in our common schools. Long, sermon-like remarks would only have a tendency to make the whole subject an unpleasant and gloomy one to pupils. Neither should sectarian views be tolerated for a moment. The skillful teacher, who is possessed of the blessed spirit of his Master, will seek to throw in a word here, and a thought there; to gather from the trivial incidents of the day some useful lesson; to seize on some passing event to illustrate a needed truth. He will strive to win and lead, rather than terrify and drive, his pupils into the path of peace. In short, his religious lessons will not be kept tied up in a napkin, to be only occasionally undone in some very prosy remarks; but they will gush up warm and earnest from his soul, and fall, drop by drop, upon the tender places of the child's heart. Certainly in this delicate, yet important work, we need to be "wise as serpents and harmless as doves."

For the Schoolmaster.

In Manassas.

WE tried it once: 'twas 'neath a July sun
As onward through the stifling summer-heat
We marched with glistening eyes and willing feet
That dim and weary were ere day was done.

Ah, many a proud eye sank in darkness then,
And many a foot its last step took that day,
As roar of cannon in that dreadful fray
Swept to eternity our gallant men.

Now, at the earliest dawn of blushing spring,
We tread again the path we trod before.

The whistling bullet greets our ears no more:
O'er comrades' graves the flowers are blossoming.

And we have gained it, then; without a fight?
Ah, yes! In truth, it chills the blood to see
Our brothers falling, dying hopelessly,
E'en though the cause be Freedom and the Right;

But yet, 'twould seem a fitting thing, could we
Have struck the rebel lion in his den,
And, o'er the tombstones of our fallen men
Strewed thick with traitors, shouted Victory!

The path is open. Loving feet may come
To place affection's wreaths above the dead,
Or bear them from their lowly, honored bed
To sleep in peace beneath the trees of home.

Smithfield, March 17th, 1862.

H. G. A.

From the Illinois Teacher.
Sunshine in a Bottle.

Among the extravagances of expression to be heard, one hears occasionally of the impossibility of bottling sunshine. It is not an impossibility, however. The lamps which give us light at night would lose their brilliancy, or rather would have none to lose, except for the *bottled sunshine*. This paper would hardly have been prepared except for the aid of the same bottled sunshine. Within a few years practical chemistry has brought many facts to the comprehension of the multitude which before were only known to the adept in his laboratory. Among these is the fact that our artificial lights, with which we imitate the sun, are really dependent on the same for their power, and are but faint reflections of the bright beams that dazzle our eyes at noonday. So far as the surface of the earth is concerned, although the internal fires modify the temperature, we may consider all heat and light as proceeding from the sun, and all life directly dependent on it. Thus we shall find the great kingdoms possessing vitality, viz., the animal and vegetable, directly dependent on the favor of the sun. Animals depend on vegetables. Some, to be sure, eat flesh, but the flesh they eat is ultimately supplied from vegetable sources. The animal needs to enjoy sunshine to be healthy, or even to live any length of time. Some try to live in the dark, or to endure the semi-darkness of polar winters; but debility and the dissolving scurvy give warning shortly of approaching dissolution. Even could animals live wholly in the dark, as some may be supposed to do, they are not independent of the sun. The great vegetable kingdom needs heat for germination, and light and heat for developing growth. No careful girl puts her beautiful flower-bed close by the north side of a building; she could not if she would. The weak

white potato-sprout of the cellar is familiar to every body who knows the green vigor of the same when supplied with light and heat. The great tree of the forest reaches high after sunlight and heat, while the plants that are outtopped are rendered feeble or altogether exterminated. The warmth of the sun is eagerly absorbed by the growing plant and transformed into fibre and tissue. Those regions of the earth that are deprived of the direct benefit of the sun's light and heat are at the extreme, mere wastes of ice and snow; and we pass through the development of vegetation as we pass through the increasing stages of light and heat, till vegetable giants and mammoths are reached in equatorial regions. Our corn is a greedy absorber of sunshine. It changes it into the material from which chemical analysis will bring oil, or which the farmer's live chemical workers will change into lard and tallow. Nature has a longer process, which is not less sure, only less speedy, than the transformation of sunshine through the corn and ox and candle to the artificial light. Whence comes kerosene? Whence comes the heat for our machine shops and manufactories? Long ages ago the sun poured his rays freely upon a world grown over with a rank vegetation, upon which animals had made little inroad. Huge masses of vegetable matter were by some means—great convulsions and upheavals, doubtless—buried together. By heat from the earth, which rather lessened than increased the amount of heating material in these masses, and by pressure, these great vegetable graves became our coal-beds, to which a resurrection is coming in these latter days. The vegetable origin of coal is plainly written on nearly every load that comes to our doors. The impressions of leaves, or the grain of wood, which has changed its appearance but retained its heating properties, can plainly be seen. We put this coal into our stoves and reproduce in some sort the heat and light which the plants of former ages absorbed, and which has been stored away for us, no man knows how long. Or we place this coal in a chemist's hand. He produces a gas to light the cities, coal-tar to use in roofing, and still has heat left in the coke. Or he takes another process, and coal-oil is freely produced. This from some varieties, and after certain refining processes, is the pure, unadulterated kerosene—*bottled sunshine*.

A very curious matter is the preservation of the brilliancy of sunlight in this very same black coal and its oil. All are familiar with the bright-

colored ribbons, different shades of which have been fashionable for two or three years, under the names of Solferino and Magenta. The color of which those different shades are produced is called *marere*, and is extracted from coal, and is very costly. A very small quantity of *marere* serves to give the required tinge to large quantities of material designed for coloring. The terrible battles of Solferino and Magenta, which cost so many tens of thousands their lives, have their memorial of blood and carnage in the color which the "dirty coal," so called, has yielded up to add to the charms of woman within three years. What a history should we get from a lump of coal, if it could talk so that we could understand it, about its own changes from the day it was in growing plants till we take it from our stoves! Every lump of tallow, every pound of lard, every ounce of turpentine and resinous gum, every pint of linseed-oil or whale-oil or coal-oil is but a form of condensed sunshine, easily bottled.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Love of Society and Some Topics Connected Therewith.

A young child is playing with its mother,—what delight it experiences. Note its quick, eager motions in its play, its sparkling eyes, the color of its cheeks; hear its laughter and its screams of joy. Or, again, the mother is at work in the sitting-room; her child is busy with its playthings; now and then it runs to her for help, or stops in its play for a smile or a look. Something now calls her from the room. You would hardly say that the child had been harmed or injured in any respect; had been deprived of anything; yet its joyousness is gone; it looks grieved, misses its mother and sobs for her return.

Outside there its older brothers are coasting with their mates; all is rapid motion; the boys are as happy as can be. Aside from swift locomotion, it would be hard to say what pleases them so much, except the presence, the society, of their young friends. There go some girls home from school, not singly, but in little companies; and here come some manly boys, in sets of three or four, while yonder the men are standing in groups at the corners of the streets or in front of the shops, and the ladies are making calls, or, if busy, have met at a knitting-bee or a sewing-society. In city and in country, people of all ages, all classes, all sorts and kinds are to be seen, drawn together by the love of society.

But to return to the mother and her child. Let a neighbor call in with her little boy jauntily decked out, and to which of the callers will the child give the most of its attention? You may think the lady the more striking object, the more conspicuous figure, but the child's eyes are riveted on the little boy, and almost before the parents have exchanged salutations, the children have commenced an acquaintance. At first, there is a little shyness, a long gaze, then a timid advance, and already they are engaged in some play. Is it not strange how quickly the little ones can tell which is the right play-mate for them? But you see the same principle of selection at work in those groups passing in the street. Business may make the banker speak to the cartman, the professor to the countryman; a boy in the first class may, at times, be seen walking with one in the fifth, a young lady of sixteen with a girl of six; but love of society most naturally draws together those who are equals, or those who forget the minor differences of fortune and of culture in the attractions of a common humanity. The two babes, equal and yet different, give us the key to all harmonious society, the less being ever an image of the greater; the chief mysteries of the mighty oak can be seen in the seedling; the ocean can be studied in a quart of salt water, and the physics of a globe within the walls of a garden. All besides is but play upon greater and less. Peers then alone are naturally drawn together by the love of society.

What differences among these equals are most conducive to lasting friendship is a tempting topic, but somewhat foreign to our purpose. Dispositions and tastes that are the complements of each other, rather than identical, by providing variety and relaxation for each other, seem to mutually charm, provided that they possess a common basis of virtue. For, in disposition and acquirements as in occupation and lot in life, we are apt to admire what we have not rather than what we have.

So natural to man is the state of society, that like those of air and sunshine, we well appreciate its blessings only when deprived of them. To the ice-bound voyager in northern seas the long deprivation of light is dreadful, its return most welcome and cheering. Captives and shipwrecked mariners can best prize the blessings of society, for they have endured the agonies of continued solitude.

That the deprivation of society is painful, exceedingly so, in the estimation of mankind, can

be seen in its being assigned as the punishment of the worst of criminals.

I once visited the Eastern Penitentiary, in Philadelphia, the chief punishment of whose inmates is solitary confinement. There is a yard about the buildings enclosed by a high stone wall. The rooms within for the inmates are large and spacious, well arranged and ventilated. I went into one of the rooms; it had been occupied by the same person for many years. It was large enough for comfort, had a neat bed with a white bed-spread upon it, a wash-stand, bureau, books from the library and many little articles of comfort. The occupant had employed some of his leisure hours in ornamenting with fanciful arabesque figures the walls and ceiling of his room, which gave to the whole apartment a semi-artistic air. Through a door, at the farther end of the room, he could enter a little yard, for air, exercise and recreation.

Having examined the rooms and the main building sufficiently, we visited the spacious laundry and the capacious kitchen. The clothes were well washed and ironed, and there was a plentiful supply of food, seemingly of very good quality. I suppose there must have been some servants to carry to the boarders their food, and wait upon them somewhat. What are these men here for? They are convicts; they have committed the most dreadful crimes. But where is the punishment? I see no physical pain, no torn muscles, no racked and quivering limbs; on the contrary, freedom from pain, nay, from that care and anxiety common to men. What more has heart to wish than these robbers and murderers find here? Would you not like to have good food, good clothing and shelter insured to you for the next ten years, so that you need feel no care concerning them? How trouble and anxiety would roll off from us; what luscious, joyous days would we pass. But this only on condition that we speak to no one for ten years; that we leave not that room; we are to be deprived of society only. Shall we welcome life, in here, on such conditions? There was not probably a man in all that large Penitentiary who would not have jumped at the chance to live the life of the poorest beggar in the streets of Philadelphia.

In Silvio Pellico's "My Imprisonment," are detailed the sufferings of a delicate yet sublime spirit, while bearing up, uncheered by a single ray of sympathy from without, against the aggregated misfortunes of imprisonment, sickness and solitude. The whole narrative becomes the

more touching, is even painful, when we discover that the sharp censorship of Austrian tyranny had erased from it every exclamation, however slight, against the inhumanity of his persecutors, that had escaped the patient sufferer. Nothing can be more touching than the sudden oscillations of feeling in this Italian patriot, from deepest despondency to exuberant joy, as he caught at times the voices of imprisoned friends, or the revulsion, as, in the dreary days that succeeded, he heard them no more. Pellico's story, with its subdued tints, toned down, till the glow of human passion seems alien to it, and with its dark back ground of privation and mental agony, is left us, an uncomplaining yet most eloquent witness against the odious house of Hapsburg.

Writers of fiction have taken advantage of our sympathy with the sufferings of enforced solitude, to interest us in the heroes of their stories, and here is one source of the universal admiration for Picciola and for Robinson Crusoe.

Man is then, by nature, endowed with a love for society, the gratification of which is a source of pleasure to him, its denial a source of pain. He is, moreover, at birth, ushered into a scene, the home, name synonymous with English civilization, where its first faint dawns are watched and welcomed. The implanted principle and the scene of our introduction into the world, show plainly that, whether we live as hermits or as citizens, nature formed us for society. This society is at first confined to the home; it then enlarges, embracing successively, relations and friends, the town, the State, our country, and, it may be, the world. I have said that peers, and next those who may consider themselves as such, are most naturally drawn together, by the love of society. In a large family, there is a great variety in age, attainments, capacity and disposition, yet what union and concord, for all are alike important. But let one member be supposed to have rights, privileges, which the others have not, or to which, in time, by diligence, age or experience, they may not attain, their union is at once broken, their harmony fled; suspicions and rivalries, if not fierce contentions follow. So it will be in any other society. How troublesome to the teacher and disastrous to the school are cliques among the scholars, founded on social differences, inferiority or superiority. The rivalries between children from different parts of the same district, or in different districts, the feuds between clans in Scotland and Ireland, arise in part from some

direct or indirect denial of this claim to equality. The Civil War of olden time in Italy; the French Revolution; the wars between the Cavaliers and the Roundheads, and the present civil war in our own country, arise in part from this, that communities whose members do not consider themselves as peers, who cannot be drawn together by the love of society, and who naturally soon suppose that their interests are hostile, are living within the same geographical limits. Wars are soon caused by the conflicting ideas; and it is always ideas that sharpen and thrust the coarse materials of swords and bayonets.

It becomes, therefore, an important question, to be considered by the founder of a religion or of a state, a religion or a state designed to make a world or a nation live in perfect and lasting concord; what principle, by its operation, will allow the love of society to permeate all portions of a community, a state or a world, binding all its members together in one concordant whole? The principle is, that amid the endless variety of individual character perfect equality in rights and privileges should reign. Rightly, then, has the rule, enunciated by the founder of Christianity, "As ye would that men should do to you, do ye also to them likewise," been styled, by preachers and theologians, the "Golden Rule," for it presupposes and promotes equality; and those of our fathers, who in their Declaration, asserted that "All men are created equal," gave utterance to a truth of far more importance for a community to learn by heart, to love and live up to, than all the constitutions that have been, or ever will be framed by men. It is the trunk, filled with vital sap, which, through the ages, shall produce and shed, as though leaves, constitutions for free and independent states; they shall fade with the years, it never.

But when man is so situated that the society of his kind is denied him, he makes for himself companions of animals, the birds, mice, rats, spiders, or even of inanimate nature, the plants and flowers. In their real or fancied joys he participates; sympathy seems given and received.

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This interest in each others' society can be seen among animals also. A horse is jogging slowly along the road, scarcely heeding the voice or the whip of the driver. Let him catch sight of another horse and chaise far ahead of him, and he quickens his pace, and on catching up with his fellow-traveller, goes now swiftly and now slowly, to keep pace with him. Here no

instincts productive of utility draw the animals together, as in the case of ants and bees.

Can any one tell me what keeps these flocks of snow-birds together, that are hopping, twittering and fluttering over the bleak fields? Or why pigeons congregate in such vast numbers, whereby the chances of their own destruction are largely increased? Why do these ducks feed together in the open bay, or those wild geese return to the colder north in flocks? It hardly seems mere fancy to suppose that even clustering pines and birches, the golden cowlip and the blue hepatica partake of the rich charm of society and thrive the more luxuriantly therefor.

When an animal is deprived of the society of its kind, like man, it often consoles itself with the society of another species. Thus, in New England, a petted sheep, called a cosset, and brought up with the cows, seems to forget its natural instincts of society, and, in preference, herds with the cattle.

Society is pleasing to man, its absence painful, and, we may add, demoralizing also. A desire for long-continued solitude, or an aversion to society, is unnatural, morbid; it is either a result or a cause, a token of existing or a sign of future evil, in the individual or in society.

In the earlier centuries of our era, the prevalence of long-continued and bloody wars induced many, who had no sympathy with the commotions of their times, to seek a refuge from violence and leisure for a life of meditation and prayer, in the deserts of Egypt and Syria. What the pioneers in this movement did from pious motives, others did from force of example and custom, but the fervid spirit of the earlier anchorites had died out, and there was not enough religious principle left with the others to strive successfully against the inevitable evils of solitude. Deprived of human sympathy and the restraining influences of society, there soon followed filth and squalor, want and suffering, distorted views of their relations to their fellow-men, and of the life that is pleasing to God. How could it be otherwise? Half the natural desires and affections were killed out; they withered and shrivelled through lack of nourishment. How, in continuous solitude, can stirring emulation, the love of power, the desire of knowledge or of society be developed? How can the heart's warm affections be kept alive among men who had abandoned home, society and country? What had they to toil for, perhaps to fight for,

that might turn their thoughts away from one long introspection of themselves? The sects of anachorets were, in the beginning, a token of present evil in the world that they had quitted; they soon became a nuisance in themselves.

Politics are said to be so demoralizing, so contaminating, that many honorable men, from high motives, have resolved to have nothing to do with them. The consequence has been that in some of our large cities the control of all offices of trust, all expenditures and taxes, all great public measures, has passed entirely into the hands of the worst demagogues and ruffians. In San Francisco a few years ago, so apparent to all good citizens were the evils of this let-alone policy, so flagrant the violations of trust and of justice, and so difficult was it to restore the government into the hands of law-abiding citizens, that a means really revolutionary in itself, but one, I think, justified by the motive and the result, was resorted to, and safety for life and property was obtained through the action of that tribunal, unknown to our laws, the irresponsible Vigilance Committee. It will not do to try to escape the evils of society by running away to caves and deserts; neither to live within a society and ignore its evils and its tendencies. How vast the field of duties and obligations this imposes upon us, what things there are in the community that we still persist in not seeing, what are the tendencies of this country, as a community, I cannot even touch upon.

Caspar Hauser is one of the saddest instances that I know of, of the evils incident to a privation of society even from earliest infancy. That there was in him, when first he was known to mankind, no noble trait of character, no beauty of form or of expression, that intellect was nearly gone, and hardly a glimmering of a soul was left, pains a sensitive mind far more than Pellico's story; his soul came out of its conflict sorely tried and worn, but angelic in its beauty; this was a mere wreck of humanity, so deformed and scarred, as scarcely to be distinguishable from a brute.

This tendency to deteriorate has often been seen in nuneries and in monasteries, where one sex leaves the society of another. It would seem that God has formed us to live together, male and female, old men and babes, the strong and the weak, the merry and the sad, and that any departure from this organic form of society entails its own evils, some of which we at this day experience. K.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

Manufacture of Postage Stamps.

THE New York *Tribune* describes the process by which postage stamps are manufactured as follows:

"The designs for the stamps are first engraved on dies, taken up on rolls and then transferred to a large steel-plate by the process of multiplication, the hardened roll being applied successively to every portion of the surface, until the dies of two hundred stamps are made. The plate being now hardened goes to the printing room. The process of printing is very simple the plate being inked, then laid in the press, the moistened sheet placed on it, the roll passed once over it, and two hundred postage stamps are printed at one operation. A weak oil is used, so that the stamp may not be saturated, as the paper is not so highly sized as that used for bank-notes. Carmine gives the red color to the three-cent stamp, pale ultra-marine the blue to the penny stamp, chrome green the tint to the ten-cent stamp, while the five-cent denomination is printed in brown, the twelve-cent in black, and twenty-four-cent in purple, thirty-cent in orange, and the ninety-cent in intense ultra-marine. From the press the sheets of stamps go to the drying-room, where they are piled in canvas covered frames, or racks, so arranged that each day's work, and even each man's task is kept by itself. They go next to be gummed, labor which is entirely performed by girls. The sheets are laid in piles, face down each girl has a copper basin of gum and a soft flat brush, with which she finishes a sheet with a few strokes. Each girl gums one thousand sheets or two hundred thousand stamps in day. The gum used for this purpose is prepared by one man only, who keeps the formula of its manufacture a profound secret. The gummed sheets are placed in racks similar to those used in the drying-room, and piled up in the room for half a day, or a day and a half, as the atmosphere may be more or less dry, and when thoroughly dried are laid between pasteboard leaves and subjected to powerful pressure. The sheets are now cut in halves so as to leave one hundred on a sheet, and are then taken to another room, where the holes between the stamps are perforated by machinery. This operation is performed by passing the sheets, first in one direction and then across, between an upper and lower set of narrow brass cylinders on shafts the upper set being furnished with small steel punches, and the other perforated with holes or dies to correspond. The operation is instantaneous.

neous, the whole eleven rows of holes being punched at once. The cylinders are adjustable on their shafts, so that stamps of any size can be perforated by the same machine.

The stamps are now finished, the only remaining duty of the attendants being to count and inspect them, after which they are placed in the safe and sent in packages wherever Government directs. Each machine, worked by a girl for twelve hours, perforates ten thousand stamps a day, one way, or half that number if the holes are made in both directions. Last year the Post-Office Department used two hundred and sixteen millions postage stamps of all denominations, while this year the increase will not fall far short of twenty millions.

Of all the denominations of stamps, the red, or three-cent ones, are most in demand, about three times as many of them being used as of the penny stamps. Next to the penny, the ten-cent denomination is most in request, next the twelve-cent, then the twenty-four-cent, and so on; the ninety-cent ones, of course, being required less than any others. Stamps being really the representatives of so much money, the greatest care is taken to guard against dishonesty on the part of the workmen, and so perfect is the system of checks, that the loss of a single penny stamp can be detected with absolute certainty."

For the Schoolmaster.
Teachers Should Have a Rank.

THIS is necessary to their having a due influence. The three learned professions are each recognized as holding an honorable rank in society. Their opinions are heard with deference, and their influence is felt with a force corresponding to the elevation of the position which they hold. Other classes of persons hold a rank. Merchants, manufacturers and farmers hold a rank. Each class is considered as having a claim to the respect of society, and each class exerts a manifest influence from the position which it holds.

In these cases, the consideration of merit gives rise to the standing which is accorded to each class. There is a conviction that society reaps a benefit from the legitimate influence which each exerts in his sphere. Clergymen, physicians, lawyers, merchants, &c., are regarded as doing something for the general welfare. No one, in any of these classes, who did not come up to the requirements of his position, would have a reputable standing in it. It is in dis-

charging well the duties of the situation that the individual commands the high consideration of his fellow citizens. The work which the physician does for society is a substantial benefit, in relieving suffering in sickness and contributing to the general health. These benefits have so often been conferred and have been received in so many cases, that the class is held in high estimation. The cases are not rare of persons who consider themselves indebted to the physician for recovery from alarming sickness or serious accident. A merchant is considered as contributing to physical comfort and to the general acquisition of wealth by furnishing good commodities at a reasonable price and by a fair exchange of commodities. So in other callings, the benefits conferred are apparent.

Taking a similar view of a teacher's work, we shall see that, as a class, they are doing for society what is of immense value. They are contributing the principal supplies to the general fund of knowledge. This alone is of vast importance, but this is only part of their work. They are, to an important extent, manufacturing the tools by which the intellectual work of the community is to be performed. Just as thinking and planning are works of wide influence, and when well directed, of a most beneficial influence, so the class of persons who set these thinking powers into motion and give, in a great degree, the direction to them, is a very important class, and deserves a high rank in the community.

Teachers have the mind of the community for the material on which they work. Their labors develop it, enlarge and strengthen it, cultivate its powers and prepare it to act upon society. As a class, the teacher holds a position at the side of the clergyman, and must necessarily precede him. The mind must have a degree of cultivation before the heart can be highly cultivated. The one works on the intellect, the other on the moral powers, but both are aiming at the improvement of the highest of the human powers. Let them both hold a high rank as they deserve, and not exalt one and degrade the other.

Every true teacher will aim to rise to the position to which he is entitled, and the class will then become a profession, and command the high esteem of the community. This position should be conceded by the community, and it will then receive in return a high benefit. As they give countenance to the teacher and raise his sphere, he will do an amount of good cor-

respondingly larger. As he is held in high esteem by the parents, so the children will be to a greater extent influenced by him, and he can therefore do a greater amount for their improvement. If he is regarded merely as a common laborer, as performing a work which is a mere drudgery, he is held in such low estimation that his opinions will have little weight, and his influence will be consequently small.

W. G. A.

For the Schoolmaster.
Big Dictionary.

SOME people evidently take great pleasure in being able to use lengthy and, to their hearers, (and not unfrequently to themselves) unintelligible words. Their conversation is much after the style of the young lady in the following dialogue:

Ellen. Come Emma, will you take a walk with me this afternoon?

Emma. No. You exceedingly oblige me by thus impeding your own progress in pursuing your ambulatory exercise, for the purpose of extending an invitation to your most unworthy and at present indisposed friend; and it excites in the organ of vitality an exceeding enormous degree of dissatisfaction that the appendages to my corporal system are in such an unfavorable condition for exercising their proper functions.

Ellen. What seems to be the trouble with your limbs?

Emma. There appears to be some disarrangement of the muscular combination that participates in the formation of these instruments of locomotion.

Ellen. Is it any like rheumatism?

Emma. Undoubtedly pertaining to rheumatic affection; however I should not unhesitatingly denominate it as rheumatism.

Ellen. Does it give you much pain?

Emma. It is scarcely within the comprehensibility of fallible creatures of earth. To use vulgar phraseology, I am in constant racking pains.

Ellen. As you are so seldom unwell, I should think it would be rather hard to bear.

Emma. Inexpressibly severe. I endure the excruciating agonies of the irrepressible twinges of the nervous organizations from the ascending of the magnificent luminary in the oriental skies to its withdrawal from our gaze behind the stupendous elevations in the majestic west, with scarcely an interval of rest.

Ellen. What are you doing for this?

Emma. The physician has administered at various periods of time a conglomeration of nauseating beverages and compounds which I am unable to designate by their legitimate cognomens.

Ellen. How long have you been afflicted in this way?

Emma. If the faculties of memory are unimpaired and capable of exercising their proper functions, it is now some three days that I have been necessitated to continue in this habitation, however much I desired to perambulate abroad.

Ellen. But you think now that you are better, do you?

Emma. I am enthusiastically applying the remedies which the physician deposited in my care, feeling hopefully encouraged to employ these attributes or concomitants of a restoration to healthfulness by the momentary cessation of pain this afternoon.

Ellen. How do you think it was caused?

Emma. I am not adequate to the task of explicitly expounding the operations by which the disarrangements of the physical organs was effected, but I apprehend that it must have been occasioned by my venturing out upon the public thoroughfare unprotected by the impervious coverings which are designed to exclude that moisture of oxygen and hydrogen fluid which is vulgarly denominated water, and the consequence was moisture accumulated on the interior of my leathern protectors, undoubtedly imparting, imperceptibly, to the respiratory, arterial and muscular mechanisms of the corporal system germs of disease.

Ellen. Well, I must be going, I am sorry you cannot go with me.

Emma. I am inexpressibly overcome with painful emotions in consequence of my inability.

Ellen. Well, good day. (Aside.) I declare, I really believe she has swallowed one of Webster's Unabridged Dictionaries recently. It fairly makes my head ache to think of it.

UNUS.

A HINT TO THE GIRLS.—Our girls will have to take care hereafter to paint their cheeks with nature's "blooms" only; to take heed and not rinse the windows of the soul with the tincture of belladonna, and to guard against looking interestingly pale. The highest court of England has ruled that want of health in one of two engaged to be married, justifies the other in a breach of his or her promise; and as the ruling of the English courts is often adopted in our own, it is very probable this will become a principle with our judges. So, young ladies look to your callisthenics. Do not paint your cheeks, dawdle too long over a novel, or omit to take your morning walk.

Home Department.

The Little Pilgrims.

The way to heaven is narrow,
And its blessed entrance strait;
But how safe the little pilgrims
Who get within the gate!

The sunbeams of the morning
Make the narrow path so fair;
And these early little pilgrims
Find dewy blessings there.

They pass o'er rugged mountains,
But they climb them with a song;
For these early little pilgrims
Have sandals new and strong.

They do not greatly tremble
When the shadows night foretell;
For these early little pilgrims
Have tried the path so well.

They know it leads to heaven,
With its bright and open gates,
Where for happy little pilgrims
A Saviour's welcome waits.

Sorrows of Childhood.

In the March number of the *Atlantic Monthly* the "Country Parson" has a charming little essay on "The Sorrows of Childhood," in the course of which he makes these remarks:

"There are parents who deliberately lay themselves out to torment their children. There are two classes of parents who are the most inexorably cruel and malignant: it is hard to say which class excels, but it is certain that both classes exceed all ordinary mortals. One is the utterly blackguard—the parents about whom there is no good or pretence of good. The other is the wrong-headedly conscientious and religious; probably, after all, there is greater rancor and malice about these last than about any other. These act upon a system of unnatural repression, and systematized weeding out of all enjoyment from life. These are the people who, if their children complain of their bare and joyless life, say that such complaints indicate a wicked heart, or Satanic possession; and have recourse to further persecution to bring about a happier frame of mind. Yes, the wrong-headed and wrong-hearted religiousist is probably the very worst type of man or woman on whom the sun looks down. And, O! how sad to think of the fashion in which stupid, conceited, malicious blockheads set up their own worst passions as the fruits of the working of the blessed Spirit, and caricature, to the lasting injury of many a young

heart, the pure and kindly religion of the Blessed Redeemer! These are the folk who inflict systematic and ingenious torment on their children; and, unhappily, a very contemptible parent can inflict much suffering on a sensitive child.

You may find parents who, having started from a humble origin, have attained wealth, and who instead of being glad to think that their children are better off than they themselves were, exhibit a diabolical jealousy of their children. You will find such wretched beings insisting that their children shall go through needless trials and mortifications, because they themselves went through the like. Why, I do not hesitate to say that one of the thoughts which would most powerfully lead a worthy man to value material prosperity would be the thought that his boys would have a fairer and happier start in life than he had, and would be saved the many difficulties on which he still looks back with pain. You will find parents, especially parents of the pharisaical and wrong-headed religious class, who seem to hold it a sacred duty to make the little things unhappy; who systematically endeavor to render life as bare, ugly and wretched as possible; who never praise their children when they do right, but punish them with great severity when they do wrong; who seem to hate to see their children lively or cheerful in their presence; who thoroughly repel all sympathy or confidence on the part of their children, and then mention as a proof that their children are possessed by the devil, that their children always like to get away from them; who rejoice to cut off any little enjoyment—rigidly carrying into practice the fundamental principle of their creed, which undoubtedly is, that "nobody should ever please himself, neither should anybody ever please anybody else, because in either case he is sure to displease God." No doubt, Mr. Buckle, in his second volume, caricatured and misrepresented the religion of Scotland as a country; but he did not in the least degree caricature or misrepresent the religion of some people in Scotland. The great doctrine underlying all other doctrines, is, that God is spitefully angry to see his creatures happy—and of course the practical lesson follows, that they are following the best example, when they are spitefully angry to see their children happy.

Then a great trouble, always pressing heavily on many a little mind is, that it is overtasked with lessons. You will still see here and there idiotic parents striving to make infant phenomena of their children, and recording

with much pride how their children could read and write at an unnaturally early age. Such parents are fools; not necessarily malicious fools, but fools beyond question. The great use to which the first six or seven years of life should be given is the laying the foundation of a healthful constitution in body and mind; and the instilling the first principles of duty and religion which do not need to be taught out of any books. Even if you do not permanently injure the young brain and mind by prematurely overtasking them—even if you do not permanently blight the bodily health and break the mind's cheerful spring, you gain nothing. Your child at fourteen years old is not a bit farther advanced in his education than a child who began for years after him; and the entire result of your stupid driving has been to overcloud some days which should have been the happiest of his life.

I believe that real depression of spirits, usually the sad heritage of after years, is often felt in very early youth. It sometimes comes of the child's belief that he must be very bad, because he is so frequently told that he is so. It sometimes comes of the child's fears, early felt, as to what is to become of him. His parents, possibly, with the good sense and kind feeling which distinguish various parents, have taken pains to drive it into the child, that if his father should die, he will certainly starve, and may very probably have to become a beggar. And these sayings have sunk deep into his little heart. I remember how a friend told me that his constant wonder, when he was twelve or thirteen years old, was this: If life was such a burden already, and so miserable to look back upon, how could he ever bear it when he had grown older.

PUNISHMENT OF CHILDREN.

"An extremely wicked way of punishing children is by shutting them up in a dark place. Darkness is naturally fearful to human beings, and the stupid ghost stories of many nurses make it especially fearful to a child. It is a stupid and wicked thing to send a child on an errand in a dark night. I do not remember passing through a greater trial in my youth than once walking three miles alone (it was not going on an errand) in the dark, along a road thickly shaded with trees. I was a little fellow; but I got over the distance in half an hour. Part of the way was along the wall of a churchyard—one of those ghastly, weedy, neglected, accursed-looking spots where stupidity has done what it can to add circumstances of disgust and horror to the Christian's long sleep.

Nobody ever supposed that this walk was a trial to a boy of twelve years old, so little are the thoughts of children understood. And children are reticent! I am now telling about that dismal walk for the very first time. And in the illness of childhood children sometimes get very close and real views of death. I remember, when I was nine years old, how every evening when I lay down to sleep, I used for about a year to picture myself lying dead, till I felt as though the coffin were closing round me. I used to read at that period, with a curious feeling of fascination, Blair's poem, 'The Grave.' But I never dreamed of telling anybody about these thoughts. I believe that thoughtful children keep most of their thoughts to themselves, and in this respect of the things of which they think most are as profoundly alone as the Ancient Mariner in the Pacific. I have heard of a parent, an important member of a very strait sect of the Pharisees, whose child, when dying, begged to be buried not in a certain foul old hideous church yard, but in a certain cheerful cemetery. This request the poor little creature made with all the energy of terror and despair. But the strait Pharisee refused the dying request, and pointed out with polemical bitterness to the child that he must be very wicked indeed to care at such a time where he was to be buried, or what might be done with his body after death. How I should enjoy the spectacle of that unnatural, heartless, stupid wretch tarred and feathered. The dying child was caring for a thing about which Shakespeare cared; and it was not in mere human weakness, but 'by faith,' that 'Joseph, when he was a-dying, gave commandment concerning his bones.'"

BETTER THAN A MAN.—It is well known that all ladies have an intense admiration for a sewing machine, and that their delight in the possession of one calls out enthusiastic terms of praise. A lady called at a sewing machine agency to purchase, and inquiring for some one who had a machine of whom she could learn of its merits, was, among others, referred to a lady then present, a quiet, demure-looking maiden lady. Upon being questioned, this individual at first replied with modest reserve, but finally the absorbing delight every sewing machine proprietress invariably feels got the better of her diffidence, and she warmly eulogized the object of the inquiry, and finally her eyes brightened, her cheeks grew rosy, and she sprang to her feet, and with an energetic voice said: "Like my sewing machine? To be sure I do! Why, I wouldn't begin to exchange it for a man!"—*Portage County Democrat.*

From the Monthly Religious Magazine.]
Home, The Residence.

Man is the only animal who, in the construction of a home, has ventured to disregard the great law of fitness. He has builded for every purpose but that of utility. The cell of the bee, the nest of the bird, the burrow of the fox, the web of the spider, are exactly suited to the wants of the inhabitants. Each builder knows what he requires, and at once, with the utmost economy and ingenuity, sets himself to his task. Instinct does no less for man, and the home of the savage, the wigwam of the Indian, the hut of the Esquimaux, the tent of the Arab, are just what the condition of the occupant demands. The house is the type of the civilization of the inhabitants. It is only as you come to the more advanced stages that there is a departure from this law of fitness, an intrusion of other things into the idea of a house. When wisdom and culture supplant instinct, when the intellect asserts and attains its mastery over the animal, when society is formed and convention rules, the hours begins to lose the simpler, more natural characteristics of fitness and use, the advancing man content only when he has grafted on some whim, or followed some fashion, or made some display, converting his home, not into a reflection of his own thought and want, but into an undigested mass of rooms and appliances,—windows, doors, gables, piazzas, without meaning and without value and without beauty. It is about a house as it is about a dress. Everything should mean something, even the ornaments. Nothing is more meaningless than the larger proportion of the dresses one sees. They have no beauty, no substantial value; they do not add to, but subtract from, your idea, of the wearer. They encumber without adorning, they conceal where they were meant to enhance, they caricature where they are supposed to ennoble. So it is with a house. If you want merely to show that you can spend money, or have the ambition to attract attention, or be unlike your neighbors, that is one thing; if you want to build a home for yourself and your children, one which they and you shall love, where you wish the household virtues to take root and grow, that is quite another. If your house is to be a mere show place, and your ambition to excite a vulgar approval or envy, you may neglect or banish the useful parts of the house, you may sacrifice utility to appearance; but if you are going to build a home, the homely, common, ever-wanted things must be close by, compact, and convenient, to

be used at no waste of temper, time, or strength. *Utility* should be the Alpha and Omega in a home.

I know that some of the most *home-ish* (to use a word you will not find in the Dictionary) looking places in the country—the farm-houses which have been the true homes and nurseries of New England character—have wanted not only the graces, but the conveniences, of more modern days. The house is not large, not wholly occupied or even finished, poorly arranged, and not over tightly built, while the well is in the yard, and in long row stretch out houses and barns. The architect to-day brings all these things into a snuggler compass; but the architect of to-day omits one element of the old home which made amends for all this, which the taste, the advance, or the mistake of the present generation compels him to omit. I mean the large, cheerful, generous old kitchen, the place where many a man and woman of silks and fashion was brought up—the true “keeping” or “living room,” redolent of the mother’s brown-bread and pies, fragrant with quiet domestic virtues, the work-place of mothers and daughters in the days when mothers and daughters worked—the centre of the family circle when the day was done, and father and the boys gathered round the evening table to read or cipher, or play a game, or mend this or that which had been broken about the farm; when neighbors dropped quietly in, and were welcome to the chimney-corner, and cider and apples closed the visit; when even lovers must sit in the kitchen and with the family, except on Sundays. I do not believe in everything that is old, but I do believe we have made no gain in surrendering these homely ways and virtues which clustered about that dishonored place. The kitchen was the *home* in those golden days ere its sacred economies were handed over to the wasteful mercies of ignorant domestics, and though there were no modern labor-saving appliances, yet because the labor was not bought, but each had his post and duty, the home went on more wisely and happily than now. The kitchen was then the blessing of the house. Now it is too frequently the curse, and the troubles it entails have much to do with this rapid filling of hotels and lodging-houses by those who rather fly from than seek to remedy the evil. Perhaps, as society is, we cannot reinstall the kitchen. I do not believe the idea would be very palatable to those who associate the place with the stupidity of Irish cooks, or regard the toil as a disgrace to their position, or as injuring the

complexion and marring the delicacy of the hand. The kitchen was the sanctum of the home, and homes have gained nothing by deserting it. It was the nursery of the character, of the health, the moral and mental strength of the old and middle-aged of to-day—of virtues which have seemed to wane with the coming in of carpets and curtains and conveniences, and that utter respectability which would gladly forget that a kitchen has a necessary connection with a house.

In a different way, if you would have peace, you must still regard the kitchen. It is now the tyrant of the house, and he who builds his house without a prime regard to that; who plans the rest liberally and leaves that to chance; or, when he finds the cost exceeding his ability, lets the pinch come there, may at once give up the thought of a comfortable home. Let the pinch come in your parlors, your furnishings,—the things for your own luxury, or the eye of your visitor; but in a home, the kitchen, the cellar, and the closet must stand before these. No house can be a home which is stinted in useful things, that is narrow and mean in its arrangements for work,—and that is one reason why these things all over towns with “*To Let*” hanging in the windows can never become genuine houses.

J. F. W. WARE.

POLITENESS.—It is a graceful habit for children to say to each other, “will you have the goodness?” and “I thank you.” We do not like to see prim, artificial children; there are few things we dislike so much as a miniature beau or belle. But the habit of good manners by no means implies affectation or restraint. It is quite as easy to say, “Please give me a piece of pie,” as to say, “I want a piece of pie.” The idea that constant politeness would render social life too stiff and restrained, springs from a false estimate of politeness. True politeness is perfect ease and freedom. It simply consists in treating others just as you would like to be treated yourself. A person who acts from this principle will always be said to have “sweet, pretty ways with her.” It is of some consequence that your daughter should know how to enter and leave a room gracefully; but it is of prodigiously more consequence that she should be in the habit of avoiding whatever is disgusting or offensive to others, and of always preferring their pleasures to her own.—*Home Journal*.

DEATH comes to a good man to relieve him; it comes to a bad man to relieve society.

Moral Culture.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to GEORGE A. WILLARD, Warwick Neck, R. I.

✂ Communications on this subject and also incidents (either original or selected) which give practical illustrations of moral principles, are invited. Actual occurrences, when accurately presented to view, always convey an impressive lesson, and we shall feel greatly obliged to all who will contribute such to this department. Ed.

MORAL CULTURE is a subject so important itself that we propose to make it a distinct department in our journal. An occasional paragraph, or article even, is not all that is required on a subject which is fundamental in its character. The Great Teacher said to his followers: “The life is more than meat, and the body than raiment.” The moral powers may properly be considered the life of the character. What these are not in a healthy and vigorous condition, the character, even when moulded by accomplished education, is too much like a stately ship without a rudder, or a splendid mansion without light or warmth.

Other things being equal, the teacher of good moral culture, accomplishes much more and does his work much better than the one whose moral powers have been but imperfectly cultivated.

One of the first inquiries to be made, in deciding on the qualifications of a teacher, whether his moral character is good, and it ought to imply much more than simply whether he is free from positive immoralities. The question should be, whether he will exert a good moral influence. In short, what he will be able to do for the moral culture of his scholars.

It is a reasonable expectation, that the instruction in our public schools should tend to the moral culture of our children, and it will be readily admitted that it is the province of THE R. I. SCHOOLMASTER to aid in this object.

From the Massachusetts Teacher.
School Ethics.

In a recent conversation with a gentleman of intelligence and large experience in connection with public schools, he made a remark which was in substance as follows: “There was a beautiful theory advanced some years ago and presented to the people in educational lectures, the effect that right is, in itself, so desirable and attractive that if only fairly presented to the mind it must of necessity be adopted by you

ence to wrong. So if your pupils go astray, you have only to keep '*right*' in a drawer at hand, and on exhibiting it before them they will choose it without hesitation, and all will go well." This remark suggested, by way of contrast perhaps, the declaration made once in our hearing by an Orthodox clergyman, who, being laid aside from the practice of his profession, undertook the care of a district school in the winter. He averred that if he had ever entertained any doubts of the truth of the doctrine of total depravity, they were entirely dissipated now.

Sad, indeed, are the developments of character daily and almost hourly revealed to one who has to do with the discipline of a school numbering one or two hundred pupils, of every variety of temperament, and coming from all sorts of home and street influences. The same in kind, if not in degree, is the experience of all teachers. What sly cunning, what artful evasions, what deliberate deception, what downright dishonesty the teacher must meet, check, expose and, if possible, eradicate! What plausible arguments and subtle sophistries he is called upon to refute! Who has not felt at times that the powers of darkness are arrayed against him, and that he must fight, single-handed, against all the growing and already giant evils of the human heart?

But courage! fellow teacher. Is not this the noblest aspect of our work, that we are striving to supplant false principles of action and to implant the true, the pure and the excellent in their stead? In this work we cannot be single-handed, for the angels smile upon it and God approves.

The inexperienced teacher begins, perhaps, in a hopeful mood. Kindness will do much and persuasion much, and the work to be done is faintly appreciated. A series of trials and disappointments and perplexities convinces him that something in his theory is wrong. He finds that he cannot present the right in such an attractive aspect as to make it an efficient motive power, for however clearly the right is seen, the wrong is as perversely followed. The theory ought to be true, but in this degenerate period and part of the world it is evidently impracticable. What can he do next but proclaim the *injury of the law*? If right cannot be loved it must be respected. But here arises a new perplexity. The legislative, the detective, the judiciary and the executive functions are to be combined in *one individual*. What expert law-*yer must he meet, ready to detect all the im-*

perfections of his code and to avail themselves of every flaw in the indictment. How many a piece of mischief drives him to his wits' ends to discover the perpetrator and makes him feel that nothing short of omniscience will meet the demand made upon him. What a need for discretion, that impartial justice may be meted out and the penalty be duly proportioned to the offence. What firmness must be shown to the offender and what tenderness to the child. An experience of some years will perhaps be sufficient to convince him that if he would rear the fair temple of science, order and truth, so that it shall be a blessing to future generations as well as a lasting monument to himself, its foundations must be laid broad and deep in the moral sense of his pupils. Distrust on the one hand, eye-service on the other, and cross-purposes on both,—this is most unhappy, most fatal to the welfare of a school.

How, then, shall the work of government be conducted, that the evils on either hand may be avoided, and the coöperation of pupils be secured in maintaining the best discipline? Observation and experience may afford some suggestions. First, then, let the teacher not hesitate, from any false delicacy or fear of being suspected of cant, to take high religious ground at the outset. Let him say in words and in practice, "*The Bible is my authority and last appeal*. I call upon you, my pupils, to do *right* here in school that you may carry away with you into life the habit of right doing. I want you to be honest and conscientious in the discharge of your duties because you are responsible to God. I want you to be obedient and faithful in school that you may each learn to be a good citizen and fulfil the duty of patriotism. Here, as in every well ordered state, and as in the moral government of the universe, obedience to law secures the welfare and happiness of the subject; disobedience, whether detected and immediately punished or not, brings an inevitable punishment with it, for the offender sins against his own welfare." The devotional exercises with which every day should begin, if engaged in heartily, may be the means of producing the most lasting and most beneficial impressions, lightening the labor of government far more than the teacher can possibly know.

In the next place there is always a portion of the school upon whose sympathy and support the teacher can depend in every effort to combat evil and elevate the moral sentiment of the whole. Thanks to our Christian freethinkers and

to Sabbath School teachings, there is always, among youth in New England, some leaven of good, which, if enabled to work, is a blessing to all within its silent but potent influence. How dear to our recollection are the countenances of some pupils in every school we have taught, whose beaming looks betoken a hearty approbation of every worthy sentiment, and as hearty detestation of those mean, unworthy tricks so often exposed and condemned.

Let the teacher cultivate this element in his school, and encourage it to show itself openly on all fitting occasions, and it will become more and more the fashion to take high ground; and those who always wait to go with the tide will, by and by, help to swell it in the right direction. When the way is suitably prepared, an expression of opinion by means of a standing vote is often a great present triumph for the cause of good order.

Again, there are certain traditional and universal fallacies which need to be met and put down, not by denunciation, but by candid yet ingenious argument. For instance: "It's mean to be a *tell-tale*, I would n't tell of a schoolmate for anything!" "A tell-tale!" what do you mean by the word? Is it one who goes about actuated by envy or malice, endeavoring to destroy his neighbor's reputation that his own may appear better by contrast? Is it one who takes genuine delight in the sins and weakness of others, and gloats over the narration as if it were a choice morsel for the palate? Is it gossip, a sycophant, a slanderer? If this is the thing, visit it with your contempt and vow never to be a tell-tale. (Or is it a person who sees that your home is being robbed and gives you information? Is it one who sees that his neighbors are being impoverished in body and soul by strong drink, and gives information of the seller, causing him to be prosecuted. Is it one who sees that the weak are imposed upon by the strong, or the innocent made to suffer, and who gives information that removes the cause of the injustice? Is it a man who has proof that his neighbor is in treasonable correspondence with the enemies of the government, and lodges information of it in the proper quarter? Ah! not at all; *that* is not what you mean by a "tell-tale." You honor the man who, often at great personal risk and for no personal advantage, performs such a duty, and you would agree that he would be justly considered as an accomplice if he withheld such information when in his possession. But in *school*,—"O

that is very different. Cheating in recitation, cheating in self-reporting, denying a fault committed,—these are *little* things, and I would not tell of those." *Little* sins? *Little* in *themselves*? There are no little sins in the sight of God, and it is hardihood for us to pronounce small what He has called great. Perhaps you mean little in their *consequences*. Would that all the consequences, in this life and in the other, of one act of dishonesty performed in youth could be disclosed to our view. We might be profited by the disclosure. But is government worth anything? Is the existence of a school worth anything? Would a school-room in which anarchy and confusion prevailed be a desirable place to frequent for mental improvement? Do not the evils which we wish to eradicate tend directly to this result? Are any thanks due to those scholars who habitually trample on the rules and resort to deception to cover up their practices, that the school is not already broken up? Do not they consume a great deal of the time of the teacher which should be devoted to instruction, in watching them and in administering discipline for their delinquencies? Do they not thus rob the studious of much benefit which they would otherwise receive? Do they deserve to be spared and treated with so much tenderness?

Furthermore, are you *consistent* in always sparing the reputation of your friends? Do you ever tell tales *out* of school? Do you ever injure any one in the estimation of others in such a way that he will never know *how* the injury was inflicted? Which is more manly, more noble,—to give information when it is called for by the rightful authority, to be used for a legitimate purpose, often when justice would be defeated without it, to protect your own rights and those of your schoolmates, to save the money of your parents from being squandered,—or to tell what you have seen to the disadvantage of some one, simply to gratify a love of tale-bearing? The grand difficulty, after all,—it must be spoken,—is cowardice. You are afraid that some guilty one whom you are the means of exposing will injure you in some way, or that there will be an opprobrium excited by your action.

First settle with yourself whether it is *right*, then ask yourself if you have courage to *do* right when the time and occasion demand it. Can you respect yourself if you have not? Can you be trusted to act a noble part, when God and humanity look to you for action? O where

would be the names of Martin Luther, of Tell, of Wilberforce, of Washington, if all were as timid and time-serving as you? Depend upon it, no great reformer, patriot or benefactor of human kind ever grew in the natural order of things, out of a school-boy who measured and shaped all his actions by the standard of narrow self-interest, and who shrank from an unpleasant duty because he feared his popularity would suffer. Yet there are multitudes of scholars who flatter themselves that it is an honorable feeling that actuates them.

It is time now to specify what the occasions are which justify the teacher in requiring and the pupil in giving information. Evidently when an individual has committed an offence which he refuses to acknowledge, another who was witness of the act may properly be called on to testify. The teacher must be the judge as to the necessity of resorting to this method for obtaining information, recognizing it always as a last resort.

Precedents are often convenient, and the following may be of value hereafter: In a school numbering about two hundred pupils, the question arose as to the perpetrator of a trifling piece of mischief, which it was thought desirable to stop before the evil grew more serious. Every one for himself denied participation in the matter, yet the fact of the deed remained. The investigation seemed effectually blocked, and all looked on with curiosity to see whether the thing would end there, or whether any discoveries would be made. The question was then put, "Does any one possess any knowledge about it?" One scholar thought he did, but refused to tell. This opened a new field. "Shall this individual be sustained by the sentiment of the school in disclosing all he knows about the matter, since the one originally concerned refuses to do so himself?" The prevailing opinion was, of course, opposed to anything like tale-bearing. A strong disposition was manifested in some quarters to frown down any argument on the subject. The school was accustomed to free discussion, and the teachers were too recently connected with the institution to be sure of their ground. It was felt to be a critical time, as the future government of the school must depend greatly upon the turn affairs should now take. This ground was taken: "Are we, as teachers, to labor here in the government of this school single-handed, or with your coöperation? Our efforts are intended for your good; it is for your interest that this af-

fair now in hand, and all similar ones, should be properly settled. You cannot be neutral; you help or hinder. Now, shall we have your help?" An attempt was made, similar to that above, to show the difference between tale-bearing and testimony. The whole of the forenoon and a considerable part of the afternoon were devoted to the discussion. The result was a vote of one hundred and eighty to twenty, that it is right and commendable for pupils to aid teachers in bringing offenders to justice, when ordinary means fail. More than a year subsequently, when a great change in the membership of the school had taken place, the subject was brought up again. By the voluntary testimony of the pupils, it was apparent that the periodical examinations, conducted in writing, were fruitful occasions of dishonesty. The propriety of disclosures by those who should witness cheating during examination, was discussed. Again it was voted, about *one-tenth* dissenting as before, *that it is right to report those who will not report themselves*, and that we will do it if occasion requires. The matter was tested, and such disclosures made as were calculated to impose a serious check upon a most alarming evil.

We have heard of a work projected, on mental science in its application to the work of teaching. Would that some competent hand would prepare a work on moral science, especially adapted to the school-room. Foremost to receive attention in such a work should be the duty of the teacher to himself. Duty to his body, that he may not grow nervous, impatient and irritable. Duty to his mind, to keep it well-furnished. Duty to his spirit, to keep it fresh, young, kindly and sympathetic. Our saddest self-reproaches are for the hasty words we have spoken and the unsympathizing spirit we have manifested. May the Great Teacher help us all to learn of Him and imbibe his spirit, that we may furnish to our pupils a better model and example. L.

DUTIES are ours: events are God's. This removes an infinite burden from the shoulders of a miserable, tempted, dying creature. On this consideration only, can he securely lay down his head and close his eyes.

THE best thing to be done when evil comes upon us, is not lamentation, but action; not to sit and suffer, but to rise and seek the remedy.

THE noblest function of art is to lift the veil from nature.

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. CADY, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.

"Insects Injurious to Vegetation."

It is nearly twenty-five years since the Legislature of Massachusetts, with a liberality worthy of all praise, authorized, at the expense of the public, a "Zoological and Botanical Survey" of the State. The objects of the survey, according to the instructions of his Excellency Edward Everett, Governor of the State, to those entrusted with its execution, were both economical and scientific. The promotion of agricultural interests was to be made a prominent object; hence the "merely curious" was to be made subordinate to "that which was practically useful."

The very important department of Insects was assigned to the late accomplished and lamented Dr. T. W. Harris, who executed his task with remarkable industry and discrimination. In his first report he enumerated more than two thousand three hundred species; but from "the magnitude of the undertaking," he forbore the attempt to present a minute description of each, but confining his attention chiefly to those which might be regarded as noxious, he particularly selected from these, for description, such as are "remarkable for their size, for the peculiarity of their structure and habits, or for the extent of their ravages." The result was the production of the most valuable treatise, upon this interesting and important branch of Natural History, accessible to any except the favored few whose means and leisure enable them to master the contents of ponderous and expensive volumes.

In the course of eight years all the copies of the original report, together with those of a small edition which the author was permitted to issue at his own expense, were exhausted. Meanwhile the author continued to accumulate and arrange materials, which he embodied in a new edition that he had been solicited to prepare, and which bears date of October 15, 1852. The lapse of ten years have made this also a work difficult of access. It is therefore a matter of earnest congratulation that still another edition, edited by Charles L. Flint, Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture, has made its appearance since the commencement of the present year.

Of the three editions of this work, which have appeared at intervals of about ten years, the last is far the most desirable. It is not extravagant praise to pronounce it magnificent. The enterprising publishers, Messrs. Crosby & Nichols, of Boston, are deserving of especial commendation for bringing out so elegant and expensive a work at a time when the channels of thought and emo-

tion are full with other matters of overwhelping interest. Were not the work one of distinguishing value, as well as elegance, its issue at the present time might have been a matter of doubtful expediency. As it is, however, there is danger the limited edition will be exhausted long before it will have been supplied, who, on learning it, will covet its possession. While it is characterized by all the fineness of material and of execution for which the "Riverside Press" is distinguished, its perfect accuracy must be regarded as its chief merit. This is specially true of the pictorial illustrations, which consist of eight plates containing *ninety-five* specimens, copied from nature with such fidelity of shade and coloring as almost to produce the illusion of viewing a real insect, and *two hundred and eighty* carefully executed engravings upon steel. The drawings for all these were supervised by the artist, and compared with the original specimens, by Prof. Louis Agassiz, the great living naturalist.

But it was not my purpose to dwell upon the merits of the work. To those capable of judging of these it needs but to be known to be appreciated. In the hands of an intelligent farmer it will not fail of being worth many times its price. Its artistic beauty will secure for it a place among the choicest selections for the drawing-room library, while it will prove an indispensable "vade mecum" to the incipient naturalist. In every public library and among the books of reference in every school it ought to find a home.

On looking into this book the reflection comes to be uppermost in the mind of the reader concerning the many erroneous impressions which he might have been saved, in his youth, by a work like this. He would never have fled in terror from some harmless dragon, nor kept his eyes from being "seeded up." He would have understood that the "Calumniator" is not a different instrument from these to close their mouths of "wicked boys." It really seems surprising that it should not be universally known that insects are never injurious. Passing the first of their existence in water, where they feed upon other insects, and after being transformed into the pupae state, emerging from their cases, they may easily be found at the proper season, at the feet of the legs to the coarse grasses in the most stagnant water,—at no period of their existence do they possess any weapons, offensive or defensive, more formidable than a short pair of jaws, used solely for masticating the insects which constitute their only food. All this any school-boy may discover, and yet we fancy that those may be found who fear that an evil eye is upon them, or the eye which they think evil is only watching to relieve them from the attack of a brood of blood-sucking quitos which are thirsting for their blood. It is time to understand that the "devil's new

as they are strangely miscalled, are our friends and not our foes at all.

It is extremely convenient to have a name by which to designate any object that we may wish to describe, even if we are obliged to employ a scientific term. I say "even if" because scientific terms are often thought difficult to remember, and for this reason are regarded with repugnance. I incline, however, to regard this objection as ill-founded, and to believe that the scientific names of things would be as easily remembered as those which are styled familiar, if they were habitually employed. A lady once told me that she could recall the botanical names of the most familiar plants and flowers more readily than those by which they are commonly known, because, in her childhood, she had learned to employ them from her uncle, who was an expert botanist. Without discussing this question, however, I have often found that there is much "in a name." For instance, I have been familiar, from my boyhood, with a dipterous insect which preys upon bees, wasps and hornets. Though armed with no weapons except a sharp and stiff sucker, and strong claws at the extremities of their feet, they easily capture insects larger than themselves armed with stings. It is wonderful with what tenacity they will cling to their prey. One of my school-boys, some time during the last summer, brought to the school-room, just before the commencement of the afternoon session, one of these insects with a honey-bee in its clutches, to which it still clung although itself a captive. I exhibited the creature to the school, and suggested that he might still retain his grasp upon the bee even were a pin thrust through his body. The thing seemed incredible. Still, from my estimate of the capacity of insects for suffering pain, I thought it not improbable. Accordingly I proceeded deliberately to thrust the enormously proportioned instrument quite through his body just at the base of the wings. He seemed not to experience the least inconvenience from the operation, and retained his hold upon the bee. In order still further to test his spirit, I pinned him firmly beside the door in the library and there I found him at the close of school, three hours later, with his proboscis thrust deep into the back of the bee and enjoying his banquet with apparent relish. From his predacious character, for the sake of having a name, I called him the Weasel Fly. The work of Mr. Harris has made me acquainted with the name and habits of the creature in the different stages of its growth. He states that the larvae of the insect live in the ground upon the roots of plants, and that the Rev. Thomas Hill, of Walham, found them, in the form of "yellowish-white maggots, devouring the roots of the tart rhubarb." These maggots "are transformed in the earth to naked pupae," which afterward make their way to the surface, when the perfect insects emerge, leaving their "empty pupae shells sticking half way

out of the ground around the plants." The name of the insect is the *Asilus sericeus*. The *Asilus estuans* is another familiar species of the same family.

Just at the beginning of the dog-days, during the last week of July, we always begin to hear a peculiar shrill and prolonged style of music in the trees. This proceeds from the Harvest-fly (*Cicada canicularis*) which is frequently called the locust, a very different species of insect. In my boyhood I used to think it quite a feat to capture one of these winged "trumpeters," and when captured I was not able to make him fully reveal the source of his musical powers. It appears, however, that he is a *drummer*, and that he makes very active use of two drums at once, which instruments he carries in two little cavities that lie hidden in the first ring of his abdomen. I had in part become acquainted with that organ of these insects from personal observation, having, in several instances, witnessed their transformation from the pupae state at the time of their emerging from the ground, and taking their position upon the rough bark of a tree where they would leave their pupae cases, after escaping through a slit upon the back. I thus discovered that a part of their existence was passed under ground. A natural question is, "Does the insect deposit its eggs there?" I will give the answer in the language of Mr. Harris, describing the habits of the seventeen-year *Cicada*, (*Cicada septendecim*). He says:

"After pairing, the females proceed to prepare a nest for their eggs. They select, for this purpose, branches of a moderate size, which they clasp on both sides with their legs, and then, bending down the piercer at an angle of about forty-five degrees, they repeatedly thrust it obliquely into the bark and wood in the direction of the fibres, at the same time putting in motion the lateral saws, and in this way detach little splinters of wood at one end, so as to form a sort of fibrous lid or cover to the perforation. The hole is bored obliquely to the pith, and is gradually enlarged by a repetition of the operation till a longitudinal fissure is formed of sufficient extent to receive from ten to twenty eggs." In these groves he states that the eggs are deposited in pairs, and that the insect passes from one part of the limb to another, and from limb to limb, making nests and filling them with eggs at the rate of nearly one nest for each fifteen minutes until the number of eggs amounts to four or five hundred. By this process, in those years when these insects abound, multitudes of forest trees, especially of the oak species, and in many instances also fruit trees, are seriously injured by the dying of the limbs in which the eggs are deposited. But the mischief does not end here. On the hatching of the eggs, which occurs within from forty to fifty days, the young insects, by a strange instinct, instead of feeding upon the leaves and branches of the tree, deliberately precipitate them-

selves to the ground, bury themselves in the soil and attack the roots, where they have been found in immense numbers piercing the tender bark with their suckers and absorbing, as it were, the very life-blood of the trees. Fortunately these creatures make their appearance in the same region only at remote intervals, during which the larvae, in large numbers, become the prey of various enemies; otherwise their ravages would become frightful. As it is, fruit trees are said sometimes to suffer severely from the injuries inflicted upon their roots. The common dog-day harvest-flies, though similar in their habits, are far less destructive, owing, in a great measure, to the comparatively small numbers in which they make their appearance.

Time and space both fail for making farther allusion to the multiplied details contained in the interesting and instructive book before us. Meanwhile I know not what better thing I can do than earnestly to commend the work itself to the attention of the reader.

I. F. C.

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster.

GEOGRAPHY.—WESTERN CONTINENT.

No. 1. Name all the rivers that empty into the Gulf of Mexico. Name those rivers that have their sources near the boundary between Utah and Kansas. Describe the Tennessee river. The Cumberland. The Osage. The James. The Savannah. The Neuse. The Shenandoah. The Susquehanna. The Kanawha. The Rappahannock. The Maderia. The Orinoco. The Parana. Name the rivers that rise near the south-eastern part of New Granada. Those that rise near Mounts Brown and Hooker.

No. 2. Bound Virginia. Tennessee. Gulf of Mexico. Michigan. Texas. Georgia. The Caribbean Sea. The last State admitted into the Union. Nova Scotia. The division of South America containing the highest volcanic peak. The Gulf of St. Lawrence. Lake Michigan.

No. 3. Locate the following:—Newbern. Fort Henry. Springfield, Mo. Memphis. Nashville. Ship Island. Amelia Island. Yorktown. Roanoke Island. Galveston. Fort Donelson. Norfolk. Richmond. Harper's Ferry. Knoxville. Cumberland Gap. Mill Spring. Bowling Green. Corinth. Cairo. Fort Pickens. Island No. 10. Fort Warren. New Madrid. Boston Mountains. Gauley river. Fort Adams. Fort Pulaski. Key West. Gordonville. Fort Macon. Phillipps. Lake Pontchartrain. Huntsville. Chattanooga. Fortress Monroe.

No. 4. Name the exports of Brazil. Of the West Indies. Of the United States. Of New England. Of Canada. Of the colonial divisions of South America. Of Central America.

No. 5. Give the latitude and longitude of New Orleans. Washington. Cape Farewell. Quit Rio Janeiro. Montreal. Cape Sable, Flo. Santiago. San Francisco. Cape St. Lucas. Chicago. Charleston. Mexico. Havana. North America. Halifax. South America.

No. 6. What waters must be sailed upon to go from Green Bay to Baltimore, thence to New York, and thence to Columbus? Albany to New York, thence to Montgomery, thence to Bahia, and thence to Sacramento?

No. 7. Locate ten islands near the American coast. Locate ten bays and gulfs. Also ten capes. Also five straits.

No. 8. Name the States of the Union that lie wholly west of the Mississippi river. Entirely east of meridian marked 83°. South of parallel 35°. Name the countries of South America that border upon the Pacific Ocean. Name the mountainous States of the Union.

No. 9. Name the republics of the western continent. The colonies. The mountain systems. Twenty mountain peaks.

No. 10. Are there any places on the western continent where it never or seldom rains? State all that you know of the climate of South America. What causes have conspired to place the United States at the head of American civilization and influence? Give geographical reasons why the States of the Union should exist perpetually under one government.

ARITHMETIC.

1. What must I ask for flour which cost me \$100 that I may fall 20 per cent. from the asking price and still gain 20 per cent. on the cost?

2. What per cent. of the asking price is the cost?

3. What per cent. of the cost is the asking price?

4. What per cent. of the asking price is the receiving price?

5. What per cent. of the receiving price is the asking price?

6. What per cent. of the receiving price is the cost?

7. What per cent. of the cost is the receiving price?

8. What per cent. of the asking price is the difference between the asking price and the receiving price?

9. What per cent. of the asking price is the difference between the asking price and the cost?

10. What per cent. of the asking price is the difference between the receiving price and the cost?

11. What per cent. of the receiving price is the difference between the receiving price and the cost?

12. What per cent. of the receiving price is the

difference between the receiving price and the asking price?

13. What per cent. of the receiving price is the difference between the cost and the asking price?

14. What per cent. of the cost is the difference between the cost and the asking price?

15. What per cent. of the cost is the difference between the cost and the receiving price?

16. What per cent. of the cost is the difference between the asking price and the receiving price?

17. The asking price is what per cent. of the sum of the asking price and receiving price?

18. The asking price is what per cent. of the product of the asking price and receiving price?

19. The sum of the asking price and cost is what per cent. of the receiving price?

20. The product of the asking price and receiving price is what per cent. of the receiving price?

GRAMMAR.

Parse the italicised words.

1. I *felt* a chilling sensation *creep* over me. Sometimes we see bad men *honored*.

2. *Whatever* the law says we must abide by. *Please excuse* my son's absence. John did it *himself*.

3-4. *With* its clear streams, beautiful *flowers* and noble *trees*, the old homestead offered to the weary a most welcome *repose*.

6. No wind that blew was *bitterer than he*.

6. He was elected *senator* on the first ballot. "Honesty is the best policy," and *that* we well know.

7. "*Whomsoever* He will, He hardeneth."

8. We choose *rather to lead than follow*.

9. You are to solve the example *having* those data *given*.

10. "*Whatsoever* ye would *that* men should do to you, do ye also to them."

WORDS TO BE DEFINED.

[The March number contained one hundred words to be defined in a *military* sense. We were indebted for that selection to Miss Emma Brown, teacher in the Prospect Street Grammar School. The compositor would make us spell *trunion* in this manner, *trunion*—which, of course, is not correct.

In the April number the word *incorrigible* is not only repeated in the second set of words for "spelling," but is spelled *-able*.

For the following list of words we are indebted to L. A. Wheelock, Esq., formerly of the Elm Street Grammar School, but now teaching in the Dwight School, Boston.]

Define in a military sense:

Barbette, Casemate, Columbiad, Dahlgren, Parrott, Paixhan, Armstrong, Cohorn, Mortar, Shrapnel, Revetement, Pennant, Picket, Parole, Guidon, Colors, Grape, Case-shot, Battery, Rifle-pits, Echelon, Deploy, Platform, Chamber, Earthwork, Skirmishers, Ordnance, Sergeant, Quartermaster, Commissary, Adjutant, Aid-de-camp, Staff, Field, Line, Abatis, Limber, Cascahel (or -ble), Acoputra-

ments, Alignment, Approaches, Apron, Assembly, Banquette, Bastion, Battalion, Berme, Bomb, Boyau (pl. x), Brevet, Cashier, Chevaux-de-frise, Counterscarp, Courts-martial, Coup-de-main, Crenelated, Cuirassiers, Curtain, Enfilade, Engineers, Entrench, Escalade, Escarp, Epreuve, Fascines, Gabion, Glacis, Grenade, Grenadiers, Hors de combat, Invest, Interval, Linstock, Lodgment, Logistics, Lunette, Maligner, Metre, Mine, Mutiny, Minie, Orderly, Outpost, Parallels, Parapet, Park, Pioneers, Platoon, Ploy, Point-blank, Rally, Rampart, Rank, Recruit, Redan, Ricochet, Roster, Sabre-tasche, Salient, Sally-port, Sap, Siege, Sortie, Shako, Stockade, Traverses, Terre-plein, Tete-de-pont, Trenches, Trou de-loup, Tumbrels, Vidette, Camisado, Provost-marshal, Tompion, Ram, Turtle.

Strange Geographical Paradoxes.

[OUR attention has been directed, by a communication from the teacher in the third room of the Providence High School, to certain "Geographical Paradoxes," found in "Pat. Gordon's Geographical Grammar. From the forty-five there given we select the following, making such changes only as a lack of ancient forms of type will oblige us to make.

The author says of these Paradoxes:—"Tho' they may appear to some as meer Fables, yet there is no mathematical Demonstration more infallibly true than every one of them, the Explaining whereof may prove both useful and pleasant to the ingenious Reader."]

1. There are two remarkable Places on the Globe of the Earth, in which there is only one Day and one Night throughout the whole year.

2. There are also some Places on the Earth, in which it is neither Day nor Night at a certain Time of the Year, for the Space of twenty-four Hours.

3. There is a certain Place of the Earth, at which if two Men should chance to meet, one would stand upright upon the Soles of the other's Feet, and neither of them would feel the other's Weight, and yet they both should retain their natural Posture.

4. There is a certain Place of the Earth, where a Fire being made, neither Flame nor Smoke would ascend, but move circularly about the Fire. Moreover, if in that Place one should fix a smooth plain Table, without any Ledge what ever, and pour thereon a large Quantity of Water, not one Drop thereof could run over the said Table, but would raise itself up in a Heap.

5. There is a certain Place on the Globe, of a considerable Southern Latitude, that hath both the greatest and least Degree of Longitude.

6. There are three remarkable Places on the Globe, that differ both in Longitude and Latitude, and yet all lye under one and the same Meridian.

7. There is a certain Island in the Egean Sea,

upon which, if two Children were brought forth at the same instant of Time, and living together for several Years, should both expire on the same Day, yea at the same Hour and Minute of that Day, yet the Life of one would surpass the Life of the other by divers Months.

8. There is a particular place of the Earth, where the Winds, though frequently veering round the Compass, do always blow from the North Point.

9. There are a considerable Number of places within the Torrid Zone, in any of which, if a certain kind of Sundial be duly erected, the Shadow will go back several Degrees upon the same, at a certain Time of the Year, and Twice every Day for the Space of divers Weeks: Yet no ways derogating from that miraculous returning of the Shadow upon the Dial of Ahaz, in the Days of King Hezekiah.

10. There is a remarkable place in the Globe of the Earth, of a very pure and wholesome Air to breathe in, yet of such a strange and detestable Quality, that it is absolutely impossible for two of the sincerest Friends that ever breathed, to continue in the same in mutual Love and Friendship, for the Space of two Minutes of Time.

11. There is a certain Village in the Kingdom of Naples, situate in a very low Valley, and yet the Sun is nearer to the Inhabitants thereof every Noon by 3000 Miles and upwards, than when he either riseth or setteth to those of the said Village.

12. There is a large Country in upper Ethiopia to whose Inhabitants the Body of the Moon doth always appear to be most enlightened when she is least enlightened; and to be least when most.

13. There is a remarkable Place on the Earth of a considerable Southern Latitude, from whose Meridian the Sun removeth not for several Days at a certain Time of the Year.

14. There is a certain Place of the Earth of a considerable Northern Latitude, where though the Days and Nights, even when shortest, do consist of several Hours; yet in that place it is Noonday every Quarter of an Hour.

15. There is a certain Country in South America, many of whose Savage Inhabitants are such unheard of Cannibals, that they not only feed upon Human Flesh, but also some of them do actually eat themselves, and yet they commonly survive that strange Repast.

16. There is a remarkable river on the Continent of Europe, over which there is a Bridge of such a Breadth, that above three thousand Men abreast may pass along upon the same, and that without crowding one another in the least.

17. There are ten places of the Earth distant from one another three hundred Miles and upwards, and yet none of them hath either Latitude or Longitude.

18. There are two distinct places on the Continent of Europe, so situate in respect of one an-

other, that though the first lyes East from the second, yet the second is not West from the first.

19. There is a certain European Island, the Northmost part whereof doth frequently alter its Latitude and Longitude.

20. There is a certain place in the Island of Great Britain, where the Stars are always visible at any time of the Day, if the Horizon be not overcast with Clouds.

Philology.

For the Schoolmaster.

Grammar Study.

AN intelligent boy can express his own ideas. His top, marbles and kite—common topics of thought—are readily and quickly discussed in all their aspects, benefits and uses. What does he need of grammar?

Business men enter into sharp trade with each other, write receipts, give notes, make terms; and no one knows whether of two men, one educated and the other unlearned, is the better bargainer. What does Thrift need of grammar?

Yet when a boy attempts to write what he mentions with a shrug as "a composition"—a very simple and harmless thing when properly considered—what he does every day and does well enough to be understood, becomes not only an irksome, but almost an impossible task. So when an illiterate business man writes a letter, he either descends into a stereotyped form of expression or employs one who is expert in such matters to write his letters for him.

Now it is just the power which the boy needs to write compositions and the merchant to write letters that is ostensibly bestowed on the pupil who faithfully learns the text of his grammar-book. It is confidence and facility in the manner together with elegance and precision in the matter of the statement.

One unlearned can express thought, but the learned alone can express thought with correctness and propriety.

And so the grammarians define the Art of English Grammar to be the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly. Such they would perhaps have it to be, but in reality, it is little more than a philosophic analysis of language by certain tests.

I do not object to the complete mastery by the pupil of every essential definition and application in the books, but I must assert, what writers in the past have not only felt but have shown by their attempts to remedy it they have believed, that the mere study of the elements of language as presented in popular grammars is quite insufficient though it may be essential. For it stops far short of the end desired;—it does not accomplish any

and very desirable to the pupil, and it leaves him quite in uncertainty as to its design till he has finished the grammar book and is ready to put his knowledge into some practical use.

We will examine and analyze the principles of popular grammar.

First in order is Orthography; from its name signifying correct writing. It treats of letters, syllables, separate words and spelling. Next is etymology, which treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications. This is by far the branch of grammar most thoroughly studied in the schools. Third, Syntax, which treats of the relation, agreement, government and arrangement of words in sentences. Fourth, Prosody, which treats of punctuation, utterance, figures and versification. Truly, this is a comprehensive list of topics; and were the student really master of them after a diligent study of his textbook, he would doubtless well understand grammar. But unfortunately, though the examples are copious, and the study diligent, these do not give him real power over the language, neither do they enable the pupil to do much more than to criticise what others write.

HENRY CLARK.

Educational Intelligence.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to the PUBLISHERS OF THE SCHOOLMASTER, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster.

School Exhibition at North Scituate.

THE public school in this village has been taught for the past season by Mr. Charles F. Andrews, whose labors as a teacher have been successful, and, I doubt not, have been duly appreciated by his pupils, and by the community in general, if the large attendance of citizens at the Exhibition given at the close of the last term should be taken as an index.

The exhibition was creditable both to the teacher and to the scholars who took part in the exercises. Most of the pieces were original—written by Mr. Andrews—and evinced a vigorous mind, with at force of character and an ambition which always secures success. I have only time and space to mention one of the productions for the occasion, the most solid and impressive,—

"A SCENIC HISTORY OF THE WAR."

This was a representation of most of the leading events in the history of the rebellion,—being personified by a large number of pupils, who did honor to themselves. But "Madame Columbia," represented by Miss Austin, was most admirably performed, especially in her replies to the representatives of the seceded States, and also to the offers of assistance from loyal States, which were

often quite lengthy, yet they were thoroughly committed. As an effort at memorizing, I have rarely witnessed a better exhibition.

But there are a few suggestions I wish to make for the consideration of teachers, in relation to school exhibitions. The first thing I would suggest is, that the programme of exercises should be greatly abridged for such occasions. The great mistake of many teachers is, they arrange for an exhibition of most of their scholars in declamation, in order to please the parents, who rarely, if ever, visit the school, except at such exhibitions. Two evenings of four or five hours each to complete the order of exercises is, emphatically, a protracted meeting,—wearisome alike both to the scholars and their audiences.

Another suggestion is, that the declamations for such occasions should be, in fact, a part in the reviews of the school-room exercises, instead of making a special effort to commit and rehearse simply with reference to such an exhibition. As the pupils in the primary studies are not expected to pass an examination in the higher branches, why should time be taken to train such children in branches of education for which they have not been prepared? By such exhibitions it appears to me that teachers are encouraging the very practice in parents of which they often complain, viz.: that "they do not visit the school-room to see what the teacher is doing with and for their children!" Cannot this fault be corrected? Cannot parents and guardians be induced to visit the school-room and witness the toils and trials and triumphs of both teachers and scholars, and cheer them by their presence and with a few kind words? Who can report progress for the next term?

Yours truly,

J. M. H. D.

From the Providence Evening Press, April 14.

Meeting of the Rhode Island Institute.

The vitality, enterprise and spirit of progress which characterize this body were strikingly manifested at its sessions in Wickford on Friday and Saturday of last week. The large attendance showed a lively appreciation of the utility of such meetings on the part of the teachers of the State. One spirit seemed to animate the whole body. The great question with all seemed to be, "What shall we do for our own professional improvement and for the improvement of the schools of Rhode Island?" A very general interest was taken in the proceedings by the citizens of the place, and the Town Hall, where the meetings were held, was filled to overflowing.

The Institute was called to order on Friday afternoon by Vice President J. H. Tefft. Mr. P. C. Sears was appointed Secretary *pro tem*. Prayer was offered by Rev. Mr. Collins, of the Episcopal Church.

After some remarks from the Vice President, the question of the afternoon, "What are some of the defects in our Public Schools?" was taken up, and was discussed with earnestness and ability by Messrs.

Allen and Chadsey, of Wickford; Slocum, of Greenwich; Potter, Teft, Eldridge and Lansing. The debate was not conducted with exclusive reference to the schools of our own State, but the more general interests of education were fully considered.

EVENING SESSION.

The evening session was commenced at half-past seven o'clock.

Mr. A. J. Manchester, Principal of the Prospect street Grammar School, Providence, occupied an hour very profitably, by the delivery of a beautiful lecture on "The Teacher; his work and his rewards." It was not only valuable for its lessons of practical wisdom, but most engaging from the whole-souled ardor and earnest love of profession which it revealed. The lecturer spoke of the true spirit which should actuate the teacher in his work as that of philanthropy. The true teacher is one who feels himself called from on high to a peculiar sphere of duty. Hence he strives to endure his character with all Christian virtues and perfections. He comes to his work with ardent enthusiasm and patient self-denial. He is always living and learning with his pupils. He never requires of them what he is unwilling or unable to do himself. He threads the old and beaten paths with the same eager curiosity as if he had never travelled them before. He never grows old in his methods, still less in his feelings and sympathies.

The teacher is mainly responsible for the intellectual growth of the child, and therefore must have right views of education. He is responsible for the moral training of the child, and he must teach by example as well as precept. He is responsible for the religious training of those whom he instructs. Hence the school must become the centre of his best thoughts and the theatre of his best acts, so that when he shall meet his pupils at the final judgment, he may give a good account of the influence which he has exerted.

The rewards of the teacher do not lie in the path of worldly gain or worldly honor; but in the consciousness of self improvement and of practical benevolence; in the gratitude of his pupils, the commendations of his patrons, the approval of heaven. Hence he does not repine at his hard lot, but toils on in faith and hope, cheered with visions of a bright future, when, having finished his course and being gathered to the home of the righteous, he shall meet multitudes instructed by his wise precepts and profited by his pure example, who "shall rise up to call him blessed."

The speaker closed with the following allusion to Lieut. Henry R. Pierce, late principal of the Woonsocket High School:

My Brothers:—Another link in our fraternal chain is broken; the tongue that used to utter words of good cheer and of sympathy in our councils is silent; the eye that watched so constantly and so faithfully over not only a special charge, but over the general educational interest of our State, is dimmed; the warm heart, that swelled and throbbed with the true

spirit of the self-denying teacher, has ceased to beat; that noble brow and Christian heart, that manly we all loved so well to meet, rest upon the stony bank of the Pamlico. But our brother is not dead; he lives to-day in a peculiar sense, in the hearts of his friends and his pupils, in our hearts and in our institutions. Goodness and truth can never die. When we call death is, indeed, to the Christian but the triumph of the spirit—a silent waiting of the soul for the coming of its Lord.

Nobly yielding the quiet and pleasures of a home, our brother entered the service of his country not because he was ambitious of personal fame, because he yearned to battle for the preservation of our government—for freedom, for the true and right; and he bravely fell at the post of duty. When we mourn our loss, let no murmurs of complaint escape our lips, for God doeth all things well. Let us emulate our brother's virtues and let us so live in labor that we, too, may fall upon the field of duty and expire at the post of duty.

After the lecture, remarks of a general character were made by Messrs. Robbins and Potter, and H. D. Smith, Esq., of Worcester.

SECOND DAY.

The Institute assembled at 9 o'clock on Saturday morning, the President, Mr. J. J. Ladd, in the forenoon Prayer was offered by the Rev. Mr. Slocum.

The discussion assigned for this hour, upon relative duties of parents, teachers and pupils," opened by the President, and continued by DeMunn, of Providence.

Mr. S. A. Potter occupied the next half hour in remarks upon the subject of Penmanship, in which he showed that the science could be reduced to general principles.

At half-past ten o'clock Mr. F. B. Snow gave a familiar lecture on the subject of Reading, illustrating the views which he advanced by practical examples with a class. He urged the importance of having the scholar comprehend what he reads, and of giving heed to the quality of voice and to articulation.

Brief remarks on the subject of the lecture occupied the remainder of the time until adjournment.

AFTERNOON.

The session was resumed at half-past one o'clock when a further discussion was had on the subject of Reading, and examples were given by Messrs. Manchester and DeMunn.

A discussion upon "The duties of teachers at the present time to their country," being next in order, was sustained by Mr. Snow, of Providence, and Rev. Mr. Slocum, who had been in the service of the country under Gen. McClellan. The manner in which expressions of patriotic sentiment were received from the audience showed conclusively that no impulse of disloyalty would ever be brought against the dwellers hereabout.

Messrs. Teft and Sears, of North Kingstown, Mr. Eastman of East Greenwich, having been appointed a committee on resolutions, reported the

lowing, which were unanimously adopted, when the Institute adjourned:

Resolved, That the thanks of the Institute be presented to Messrs. A. J. Manchester, F. B. Snow, and S. A. Potter for their valuable and practical lectures; to Messrs. O. Winsor, W. W. Champlin and A. Chadsey for their faithful and efficient services in behalf of the Institute; to Misses R. and M. Hammond and Miss E. M. Henry for favors rendered us; to the people of N. Kingstown for the use of their town-house, and also to the citizens of Wickford who have so generously welcomed us to their hospitalities and have thereby added so much to the pleasure of our stay among them.

The meeting thus closed was characterized by zeal and harmony. The generous hospitality of the good people of the place did much to promote its success. We doubt not the teachers will return to their avocations with a renewed sense of their high calling and privileges.

Mathematics.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to N. W. DEMUNN, Providence.

From the Illinois Teacher.

An Arithmetical Puzzle.

I doubt not many of the readers of the *Teacher* are acquainted with a performance which looks very strange and even magical to a person unfamiliar with numbers, and which I have seen in some juvenile books. It is this: take any two numbers divisible by 9; add (or multiply) them; from the sum (or product) strike out a figure, and tell the other figures in any order to the person who proposes the puzzle, and he will tell what figure was struck out. Thus, you take 495 and 306, I being ignorant what you take; you add them, and tell me that after striking out a figure you have left 1 and 0. I say at once you struck out 8. Whatever figure must be used to make the sum of the given figures equal to 9, or a multiple of 9, is the figure struck out. If 5 and 7 are given me, I say 7 and 5 are 12; 6 is needed to make 18; therefore 6 was struck out. The peculiar properties of the multiples of 9 are so well known now to the students of our common arithmetics that I need not explain.

I have often amused myself and others with a variety of processes depending upon a few simple relations of numbers, such as any good scholar in our practical arithmetics can understand if he can extract the cube root, but which are quite puzzling to most persons even if very familiar with numbers. I will give a few actual instances; the great puzzle is, that I extract the cube root, or seem to do it, with marvelous speed. I propose it as a problem to the readers of the *Teacher* to ascertain, by analysis of these instances, the methods used and the principles involved. In ascertaining them you may find out something useful to you. I was once in a school-room where the teacher had written upon the board the number 9,129,829, and the class

were trying to find the cube-root of it. It occurred to me that I might, perhaps, by a mental operation ascertain the root, as the teacher pronounced it a perfect cube; and within a minute after I thought of it I said to the teacher, "The root is 209." Following out my discovery, I soon found myself able to give, by mental operation only, and almost instantly, the cube-roots of all perfect cubes expressed by 4, 5 or 6 figures; and in the same way the cube-roots of one-tenth of all perfect cubes expressed by 7, 8 or 9 figures. What I discovered is used in the following examples, in connection with other processes and principles which whoso will may discover. I propose as the problem, the discovery of the methods and principles used. I must say, however, that the operations in the 4th and 5th, preliminary to the direction, "cube the number," are based upon other principles and properties of numbers than those used in the 1st, 2d and 3d. I place the operation (which I do not see) alongside my directions.

I. Take some number expressed by three figures, no one of which is a cipher; do not tell me what you take: write the number as a period of thou-

Unseen Operation.

7)765765

5)109395

9)21879

13)2431

187

187³=34,969

187³=6,539,203

sands, following it by the same number as a period of units: thus, if you take 413, you write 413413. Divide this number by 7; divide the quotient by any number under 10 that will leave no remainder; divide this quotient by any number under 10, as before; divide this quotient by 13. How many figures in the last quotient? *Answer*, "Three." Cube the number. How many figures? *Ans.* "Seven." Cross the middle three, and give me the others in their order, putting *x* in places of crossed figures. *Ans.* 6,539,203." The number which you cubed was 187. (This answer I gave in four seconds after writing the mutilated number)

II. Take a number of three figures and make one of six as directed before. Odd, or even? *Ans.* "Odd." Divide by any number between 12 and 30

Unseen Operation.

13)261261

7)20097

2871

—1859

2)1012

506

506³=256,036

506³=129,554,216

that will give no remainder; divide by any number less than 10 giving no remainder. How many figures in the quotient? *Ans.* "Four." What is the thousands' figure? *Ans.* "2." Subtract 1859. *Ans.* "Done; I still have four figures." Is the number even? *Ans.* "Yea." Divide by 2; cube the quotient number. How many figures now? *Ans.* "Nine." Beginning to count at units, put *x* in place of the 2d, 4th and 6th, and give me as before. *Ans.* "129,554,216." The number cubed was 506. (Answer given by me in three seconds.)

III. Taking three figures, make a number of

Unseen Operation.

8)632632

$$\begin{array}{r} 79079 \\ -8008 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

13)71071

7)6467

$$\begin{array}{r} 781 \\ -363 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

418

418²=73,034,632

in four seconds.)

IV. Take an even number greater than 20 and less than 100, and multiply it by 9, and that product by 6;

Unseen Operation.

$$\begin{array}{r} 34 \\ 9 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 306 \\ 6 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

18360

—34

7)18326

2)2618

7)1309

187

187²=6,539,203

answer given in six seconds.

V. Take some multiple of 3 between 30 and 100; multiply by 9 and the product by 6; annex a cipher, and subtract the number first taken;

Unseen Operation.

$$\begin{array}{r} 57 \\ 9 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 513 \\ 6 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

30780

—57

7)30723

8)4389

3)627

209

(209²=1,266,749)299²=9,129,329

taken, 57. (Answer in seven seconds.)

In the fifth example I have given a real instance of error; the operator erred in multiplying 209 by 209: I did not know where the error was, but could say almost at once there was an error. The variety of methods by which I obtain the number that I direct to be cubed is almost endless, as I never use the same method twice; but the principles are few that explain them all, and enable me to devise them extemporaneously.

ULTIMUS.

Editors' Department

OUR COVER shows what may be expected of readers from month to month. Each page has a specific field of thought, and will reveal truth to us in that direction especially. The departments of school work, as well as of life in general, will be examined by those who distinguished ability. We are to expect original articles from each contributing editor the year. Will not this be a rare feast, at the simple price of one dollar. THE SCHOOLMASTER never promised such a flow of riches the coming year. We want subscribers—to have them. Teachers take care of your lives or dies at your hands. It is a child's profession. At the Institute in Wickford or two since, we met with a cheering response teachers and citizens. Several citizens of goodly town gave us the "dollar" with wish for its prosperity.

Bear in mind that there is no speculation. It is a work for the public good, and all that come thus far has been expended upon its improvement. Teachers, why not put your shoulder to the wheel and place this journal on a strong vigorous foundation? Don't care for it if you are a mercenary, and time will prove worthy the position you now occupy. Do not complain of "small pay" when you do not labor to convince the people that you are worth a greater reward. As you elevate the profession so you will inevitably increase the demand of the community. In time you will be paid as you are worth. There are teachers in New England who take no educational journal, nor do they read one; there are physicians who patronize a journal of their profession, and what do they say? Why they finally are superseded by some other. The physician may not altogether lose his business, but he will only be called to do that which is utterly unable to forget. He becomes a natural fossil. He sleeps.

PHOTOGRAPH ALBUMS, &c.—At Rider's: find a splendid assortment of these at fair prices as well as a variety of materials usually found in such a store.

At Frank Gay's store you will find some of the choicest selections, and it is currently the most popular among the tea-parties and sewing-circles. He has second-hand warrants every one. He has second-hand and a large assortment of new ones. Frank has advertised in THE SCHOOLMASTER very liberally, and is now receiving the rewards of his of country teachers on Saturdays, which is a sight to see. Frank, success to you. THE SCHOOLMASTER makes a bow for your generous sympathy.

From the Providence Evening Press, April 29th.
Woonsocket.

FUNERAL SERVICES OF THE LATE LIEUT. H. R. PIERCE.—An air of the deepest solemnity pervaded the streets of this village to-day, during the progress of the hallowed rites connected with the interment of this brave officer in the soil of Rhode Island. Business was generally suspended, and notwithstanding the threatening aspects of the weather in the early part of the day, the railroad trains from Providence and Worcester brought large delegations of teachers and others, to participate in the mournful pageant.

The body of Lieut. Pierce arrived here on Saturday evening, and was immediately conveyed to Lyceum Hall, where a guard of honor, consisting of four privates, under Lieut. Charles Watson, detailed from the ranks of the Woonsocket Guards, were stationed, and remained until the corpse was removed for final interment. The room was tastefully and appropriately decorated with furled flags, &c., and the casket containing the body rested on the American flag, in protecting which his dying hours were spent. The whole were under a canopy of black. On the casket was the following inscription:

LIEUT. H. R. PIERCE,
Fifth Regt. R. I. V.,
Killed at Newbern, March 14th, 1862.
Aged 33 years.

Without doubt a braver man than Lieut. Pierce never entered the arena of battle. He was a native of Vermont, and began life one of the poorest of the poor, but has been a hero from boyhood. Without home, money, friends, he struggled through the public schools, teaching, laboring, economizing. With a determined will that would yield to no obstacles, he entered Amherst College—took a good position in his class and graduated honorably. He afterwards taught the High Schools at Saxonville and Hopkinton, Mass., and in the latter place was united in marriage to one of his young pupils—Miss Tillinghast, now left a child-widow with one child. He subsequently became Principal of the High School at Woonsocket, where he remained a faithful and successful teacher until Gov. Sprague invited his attention to the war. As one of the speakers remarked, while at Annapolis, after he had bid adieu to his wife and family, and his host of friends in this place, he replied to a friend who questioned him as to his object in thus periling his life, that he could not bear the thought that his little son should grow up and read the history of this wicked rebellion, and not also read that his father was engaged in sustaining the government in such a struggle.

At 10-12 o'clock, the procession was formed at Armory Hall, under the supervision of Reuel P. Smith as Chief Marshal, together with his Aids, E. M. Jenckes, Bethuel A. Slocumb, Oscar J. Rathbun. The procession was composed and distributed as follows:

American Brass Band, 18 pieces, Amory Paine, Leader.

Woonsocket Guards, 42 muskets—Peter Simpson,

Colonel; Chas. Watson, Lieutenant; S. B. Bartholomew, Adjutant; David F. Harris, Lieutenant.

Slatersville Union Band—15 pieces.

Slatersville Drill Corps—40 muskets. Captain, Isaac Place; 1st. Lieutenant, H. A. Twist; 2d Lieutenant, D. R. Burdick; 3d Lieutenant, Nathan Benton.

Woonsocket Lodge of Odd Fellows—54 members, Wm. E. Hubbard, N. G.

Woonsocket Lyceum—53 members, Emor Cee, President.

Teachers of Providence Schools, 10 in number.

Woonsocket High School—99 members.

Bible Class of Baptist Society, formerly taught by the deceased, 35 members, Washington Smith, Teacher.

The Pall Bearers, numbering twelve, were composed of six from the O. F. fraternity and the remainder from the military, as follows:

Odd Fellows—Daniel M. Paine, Nathan T. Verry, Noah L. Peck, Henry A. Stone, Wm. C. Boyden, Jr., Chas. D. Place.

MILITARY—Lt. L. C. Warner, First Light Infantry, Lieut. G. H. Pierce, National Cadets; Lieut. John E. True, 5th Regiment R. I. V.; Lieut. F. C. Sayles, Pawtucket Light Guard; Lieut. Charles D. Jilison, Burnside Zouaves; Lieut. S. B. Bartholomew, Woonsocket Guards.

The procession moved through Main street, and into the spacious hall in Harris' Building, where it arrived about 11 o'clock. The hall, entries and stairways, were soon crowded so completely as to render it necessary for those stationed on guard to prevent further access to any part of the building.

Rev. B. P. Talbot of the Episcopal Church, opened the exercises in the Hall, by reading selected passages of scripture appropriate to the occasion. The hymn commencing—

"When those we love pass away,"

was then sung by a large choir, after which Rev. Mr. Talbot delivered a most fitting and impressive eulogy upon the life and character of the deceased, which time and space alone prevent us from laying before our readers.

Rev. John Jennings, of the Baptist Church, followed in a similar strain, after which the services at the hall were brought to a close by singing the following, composed for the occasion by J. M. Stewart, of the *Patriot* office:

REQUIEM.

Rest sweetly, O Pilgrim! thy journey is o'er—
Thou standest serene on eternity's shore,
Where millions before thee their cares have laid down,
For a blessing eternal, the conqueror's crown.

All environed with dangers the path thou hast trod,
But though dark and mysterious, it led thee to God,
Who giveth the weary and wandering room,
And whispers in accents of tenderness, "Come."

Rest sweetly, O Soldier! thy battles are done,
Thy warfare is ended, the victory won;
The foemen have fled, or lie cold in the grave,
And a laurel immortal awaiteth the brave.

Never more shall the clarion, with notes wild and deep,
Nor the sentinel's challenge, arouse thee from sleep;—
Thy mortal we place 'neath the sheltering sod,
But thy spirit, O Soldier! is resting with God.

The column was again formed and proceeded to Oak Hill Cemetery, where all that was mortal of the brave Lieutenant were consigned to a vault, which, in life, he assisted in constructing.

Live and Let Live.

UNDER this old and trite saying we wish to make a few suggestions in regard to the matters of the financial interest of our journal. It is well known that the subscription list of our periodical can pay not near the monthly expenses of publishing, therefore we must resort to our advertising friends and other sources for the balance. Now there are many teachers who have a warm interest in the welfare of *THE SCHOOLMASTER*, and are doing much for its promotion, who can influence much patronage in the various lines of business in our city. Now is it not the duty of such to patronize those who help sustain our journal by advertising? We think those who help sustain the journal, wherever they may be, should receive the patronage of the teachers so far as may be consistent with their own personal interests.

If a bookseller is so short-sighted as to drive his best customers from his store by a total indifference to his best interests, he should have the benefit of a wiser man's experience. Supposing all educational journals should at last die for want of support, what would probably be the net gains of the book-trade. Teachers, if it may be, *help those who are willing to help you.* When you go to Boston, take your file of *SCHOOLMASTERS* and see who advertise, and give such a call. When you go to New York or Philadelphia, do the same, and when you visit our beautiful city remember *your friends*, for the friends of *THE SCHOOLMASTER* are your friends, and its enemies will do what they can by indifference and coldness to kill your profession.

Contributions.

THE following contributions have been received in compliance with a resolution passed at a recent meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, held at Carolina Mills, for the relief of the sick and wounded soldiers:

Previously reported.....	\$26 41
Mr. G. M. Bently, Pub. School, Hopkinton,	40
Miss S. M. Lillibridge, Public School, Richmond	18
Mr. A. A. Lillibridge.....do.....do.....	22
F. B. Snow, Bridgham School, Providence.	6 13
M. A. Maynard, Dist. No. 2, Burrillville...	25
George W. Spalding, Natick.....	1 84
Miss Kate Pendleton, No. 11, Watch Hill, Westerly.....	60
F. B. Smith, Valley Falls, Dist. No. 33....	3 75
Second Primary, Elmwood.....	50
H. H. Gorton, Dist. No. 15, Warwick.....	51
Miss E. A. Pierce, Summer Street Intermediate, Providence.....	1 51
W. H. Gifford, Middletown, Dist. No. 3,...	1 25
D. R. Adams, Public School, Centerville...	85
A Primary School, Providence.....	1 52
W. C. Peckham, No. 11, Burrillville.....	36
Miss S. J. Bates, Primary, No. 11, do.....	36
Miss E. P. Cunliffe, Dist. No. 1, Warwick.	1 00
East District, Warren.....	28
H. M. Rice, High School, Woonsocket....	75
Perley Verry, Grammar School, do.....	82
Miss A. Peck, Intermediate do.....do.....	57
Miss B. J. Brown, Primary do.....do.....	38

Miss E. Paine.....do.....do.....do.....	40
Miss M. R. Brown, do.....do.....do.....	35
Miss Lucy Smith, do.....do.....do.....	73
N. W. DeMunn, Principal Benefit Street Grammar School, Providence.....	3 06
Mary W. Armington, Graham Street Intermediate School, Providence.....	1 12
Mary E. Anthony, Benefit Street Intermediate School, (one room,) Providence,.	50
Lizzie A. Davis and Susan R. Joslyn, Benefit Street Primary School, Providence,	63
J. H. Arnold, Portsmouth, District No. 5...	5 00
William L. Chace, Chepachet.....	2 00
Miss Fanny Padelford, Elmwood Primary..	58
Mr. H. H. Brown, Glocester.....	15
Intermediate and Primary, Hammond St., Providence.....	3 25
Miss Mary E. Barber, Kingstown.....	13
Mr. J. H. Tefft, Kingstown.....	50
Miss Mary M. Shelley, Primary, Ring St., Providence.....	62
Miss Maria Essex, Primary, Potter's Avenue, Providence	1 00
Miss Elizabeth Helme, Primary, Walling Street, Providence.....	1 00
Miss Elizabeth B. Carpenter, Intermediate, Walling Street, Providence.....	1 75
Mr. I. F. Cady, High School, Warren.....	3 12
Misses H. P. Martin and G. Buffinton, Primary, Warren.....	1 03
Miss Davol's Private School, Warren.....	50
Miss A. W. Jackson, Primary, Summer St., Providence.....	1 80
Nathan B. Lewis, Richmond.....	25
Henry B. Kenyon, Arcadia.....	45
Miss S. J. Williams, Fountain Street Grammar School, Providence.....	42
Caroline W. James, Hopkins School, North Providence.....	1 50
J. B. Spencer, District No. 9, Warwick....	1 00
Miss Lydia C. Armstrong, Chepachet.....	1 00
Mr. T. T. Tucker, South Kingtown.....	35
Graham Street Primary, Providence.....	46
George H. Gardner, Allenton.....	75
Ann E. Tefft, Kingston.....	11
Louisquisset School.....	60

\$67 81

THE ATLANTIC for May has been received. The following are among the contents:

Man under Sealed Orders; My Garden; Lyrics of the Street; The South Breaker; Methods of Study in Natural History; Spirits; The Titmouse; Saltpetre as a Source of Power; Lines Written under a Portrait of Theodore Winthrop; The Statesmanship of Richelieu; Slavery in its Principles, Development and Expedients; The Volunteer; Speech of Hon. Preserved Doe in Secret Caucus.

We have often called attention to this *prince* of monthlies, and we can only say, what we have said before, that no American scholar can afford to be without the valuable information it contains. The articles by Prof. Agassiz, on the study of Natural History, are alone worth many times the price of the magazine.

We learn that our worthy editor and fellow-teacher, M. S. Greene, of Westerly, has been engaged for the public school in Carolina Mills during the coming year. We wish our estimable friend success in his chosen profession.

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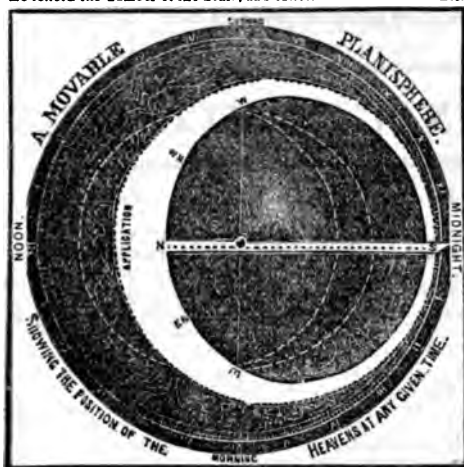
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THE
R. I. Schoolmaster.

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The R. I. Schoolmaster.

JUNE, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

NUMBER SIX.

For the Schoolmaster.

Physical and Political Geography.

PHYSICAL science, in connection with geography, has hitherto received but little attention in the school-room, and even our text-books have been strangely silent upon the subject.

This is much to be regretted, because it not only forms one of the most interesting and prolific subjects for study, but is absolutely essential to a thorough knowledge of geographical science in general.

The natural sciences have advanced wonderfully within the last few years, and we are surprised that man, placed in a world of such immutable order, should contrive to remain so long ignorant of the familiar objects by which he is surrounded. The earliest efforts of the mind appear to have been devoted to abstract speculations, such as investigations of mathematical principles, and even the first application of thought to physical subjects was away in distant worlds, where the wildest imagination had reveled from time immemorial, while the more tangible results of the operations of nature's laws were left comparatively untouched. They knew more of the geography of the heavens than of the earth, physically or politically, and the former was mapped and charted long before the latter.

It has been some hundreds of years since the idea of universal gravitation was first promulgated, but less than a century since Priestly discovered oxygen gas and analyzed the air we breathe.

Recent investigations have opened new treasures of available truths, and we must make use of them if we are to derive any benefit from

them. Therefore the subjects of study should be so modified and extended as to afford the greatest possible advantage, intellectual and practical, not only to the student, but also to those whose duty it is to expound them. We must not be content to trundle around in the same old ruts of thought, and carry a stone in one end of our meal-bags because, forsooth, our grandfathers did the same thing, but branch off into new fields, lay out new roads, cultivate new soil, open new veins and bring to light fresh treasures from nature's great storehouse of knowledge.

The educational world appears to be appreciating, in some degree, the advantages of learning physical in connection with political geography, and hence efforts are being made to introduce the former into our schools. It seems to be a question, whether they should be taken separately or so combined as to form one study.

There are some reasons for making them separate studies. The principal one appears to be, the danger of overtasking the minds of young pupils. It is argued that very young scholars might not be able to grasp all the principles of physical geography. Neither can they all of political or mathematical, but enough may be introduced to establish general principles in each, leaving details to a more advanced work and more mature minds.

There are cogent reasons for uniting them. First, there are already too many studies in our common schools. An ungraded school should never have any of the higher branches taught, because teachers have generally more than they can do faithfully, if the school is large, without them. Secondly, if made a separate study, it is almost sure to be passed over, parents and teachers

pils not appreciating its value nor realizing its importance, and the time will be devoted to something else. Experience has proved over again the difficulty of getting classes to take hold of physical geography alone.

Thirdly, if taught separately pupils fail to see the connection between the physical and political, a point which must be considered very important. A lesson is recited, and the class take their seats "without note or comment" from the teacher, generally because he has no time for explanations. If both are learned at the same time and recited in the same lesson, pupils cannot fail to perceive the relation of the two departments to each other.

In order to teach physical geography in any manner successfully, it is absolutely necessary that the school-room should be furnished, not only with the ordinary globes and outline maps, but also with physical charts showing the geological structure of the earth, the mountain systems, river basins, isothermal lines, distribution of plants and animals, ocean tides and currents, winds and storms, commercial intercourse, &c.

Pictures, too, faithful representations of natural divisions in perspective, should adorn its walls. A knowledge of some of the common minerals, that the scholar can collect in the fields or by the roadside, would be an invaluable aid to a thorough understanding of the geological structure of the earth. Therefore the teacher should interest himself and his pupils in collecting specimens of different kinds of rock, and thus forming an interesting and instructive cabinet, which time and industry would continually increase.

With these aids a pupil obtains a living idea of his subject, one that the first wave of forgetfulness will not be likely to sweep away, and upon which he can rely as a foundation for something greater.

As an illustration showing the connection between our ordinary primary geography and physical science, let us suppose a class who are just beginning to learn the natural divisions, to have the subject of mountains under consideration. The text should be committed to memory and recited *verbatim*. Many object to this, but it can do no harm, while it strengthens the memory to retain what follows. If a choice was to be made between memorizing without oral instruction and oral instruction without memorizing, the latter would be decidedly preferable. But if the two can be so combined as to reap the advantages to be derived from both methods,

it should be done. The text should be taken as a basis for a short, familiar, catechetical lecture on the subject of mountains. Point to a hill in the neighborhood, and ask how that would appear if its top was among the clouds, and instead of the green fields and herds of cattle which could now be seen, the summit was a barren rock or glistening with crystal snows. The imagination of the pupil would be excited at once and his mind awakened to receive the other topics which would be presented in connection with that. It should then be shown how it would appear in a picture, also on a map, comparing at the same time your own descriptions and illustrations with those in the text which he has committed. This will make him understand that and impress it so indelibly upon him that he will not soon forget it. Then the formation of a mountain and mountain ranges might be illustrated; showing how the different strata have broken and turned up on their edges by forces acting from beneath, and how the unstratified rocks have been thrown out and constitute the tops of our loftiest peaks.

All could be easily shown by diagrams on the blackboard, or the well-arranged geological charts above mentioned. The mineralogical cabinet should also be resorted to, to show the materials which go to make up the great masses of earth and rocks that have been elevated to such heights.

Rivers could be introduced in the same manner, giving the physical outlines of a country that would naturally contain many large streams, also one destitute of water. Explain the principle of evaporation and condensation in connection with the sources of rivers, also their commercial importance, with their magnitude.

To interweave the two subjects successfully and have them well understood requires a *live* teacher, one perfectly familiar with his business, conversant with the progress and recent discoveries in natural science, and who possesses a love for his calling, a vivacity of temperament and a power of communication that will rivet the attention and awaken a spirit of enthusiasm in the minds of his pupils.

Applying this principle on a more extended scale, we might explain the physical conditions requisite for flourishing countries; that it does not depend altogether upon the people of those countries, but partly upon their physical adaptation for the development of man's genius and enterprise.

We could not expect to see a nation, no mat-

ter how enterprising, converting the deserts of Africa or the steppes of Siberia into flourishing kingdoms or republics, building large cities and extending their commerce and arms to all parts of the world.

On the other hand, countries having such favorable physical formations as some parts of Europe and the United States, are peculiarly adapted to develop all the resources which civilization and refinement, united with indomitable energy and love of gain, can bring to bear upon them. The surface of those countries is diversified with hills, mountains and valleys, the very conditions necessary to fertility; well watered by large, navigable rivers, which afford the most ample inland communication. The most valuable and useful minerals, such as coal, iron, copper, lead, silver and gold, are beneath the surface in immense quantities. The coasts are indented with numerous bays and estuaries, forming deep, spacious harbors for an extensive commerce. The climate, too, is just that which will develop most strongly the energies of a people, being free from the enervating influences of extreme heat or cold. Forms of government may retard or accelerate the progress of civilization in such countries, but where nature furnishes man with all the elements of national greatness, no earthly power, however despotic, can stop the tide of human progress.

M. S. G.

STICKING PLASTER RHETORIC.—The Editor of *Harper's Magazine* says in his "Easy Chair" leader, "The conservatism of Washington was an *adhesion* to moral principle." We have italicized the word to which we object in this sentence, and as the mistake of the Editor is quite a common error with writers and speakers, we will state our reason for objecting to it. The word *adhesion* is properly applied to material parts or surfaces in close contact, but should not be used to express a moral relation of things; for which service the cognate word *adherence* is specially adapted. It will not be found impossible, perhaps, to quote respectable usage of the word *adhesion* in the moral sense, but in all such cases it is inadvertence in the author.

Akin to this mistake in the use of the word *adhesion*, for *adherence*, is that of many writers and speakers in the use of the words *soluble* and *insoluble* for *solvable* and *insolvable*. The distinction between these words is precisely that which exists between *adhesion* and *adherence*. We should not say "The problem is *insoluble*," but "*insolvable*." The latter has a moral meaning, and the former only a material, or chemical significance, which excludes it from ethical uses.—*Providence Evening Press*.

From the Wisconsin Journal of Education.
School-House Furniture.

BLACK BOARDS.

Nothing is more necessary in a school-room than an abundant supply of good black boards, and yet we find few school houses well supplied, while the boards in use are generally of a very inferior quality.

It is the object of this article to give a few plain directions, deduced from experience, in regard to the subject, which may be made more or less available in the schools of the State.

A black board may be board, slate, paper or plaster. It may be black, blue, brown or dark grey. The cheapest way of making a black board surface, is to put common wall paper on the wall, *wrong side outward*, so as to have a tolerably smooth surface, applying with a soft brush, a thin coat of the following mixture: Common rye or wheat flour paste mixed with sufficient lampblack to give it the requisite color. This dries quickly, and makes a hard surface, which if kept dry, will last a long time, provided crayons are used, which should always be the case. The expense of covering this surface will not exceed one cent per square foot. This process, though giving a cheap board, is not to be recommended. If, after the paper is on, it be painted dark blue or green, it will make a good durable surface, which has also the advantage of cheapness, and is nearly noiseless.

The most common and perhaps the next cheapest boards in use, are black boards proper; made by jointing and glueing together firmly, well-seasoned white wood or pine boards, (if pine, they should be free from pitch,) and painting the surface. These should have end pieces to keep them from warping, and should be so arranged that shrinking will not cause them to check or split. This may be covered with the mixture of paste and lampblack, which does better on the board than on paper, as it can be washed off and renewed when worn, after a couple of hours' soaking. They are more commonly painted. A mixture of lampblack and skimmed milk is often used, but blackens the hands and rubbers for some time afterward. Lampblack and spirits of turpentine dries quickly, but is open to the same objection. Mr. Superintendent Wells, of Chicago, says in his last report, that they have there succeeded in making a good black paint for black boards, as follows:—"Alcohol, one gallon; lampblack, one-half pound; shellac, three-quarters of a pound."

pulverized pumice stone, one-half a pound." Black paint dries slowly, even when the best driers are used, and the surface of this and all other *paints* glisten so as to make it almost impossible to see figures except in certain positions. If paint is used at all, blue or dark green paint is preferable to black, as they dry quicker, and having white lead for the base have more *body*, and are therefore more durable. A *stain* is much better to apply to a board than paint, as it leaves the dead surface of the wood which abrades the chalk well and is durable. There is some difficulty in getting a stain of sufficient blackness. I have succeeded in making a good stain by using bichromate and prussiate of potash, logwood, nutgalls, copperas and alum boiled in vinegar. The proportions were "guessed at."

Plaster black boards are coming much into use and are prepared as follows: Take masons' "putty," ground plaster and a little salt, mixed in the usual proportions for hard finish. The coloring matter is lampblack mixed with whiskey, alcohol or sour beer, to the consistency of paste. Mix this well with the other ingredients just as they are to be applied to the wall. The quantity of coloring matter can be easily determined by experiment. It must be enough to make a black wall. Of course this is applied to the rough or scratch coat. It should be well worked down, so as not to abrade the chalk too much, and finished off by smoothing with a wet brush. This makes a good board, but after use will glisten so as to be somewhat objectionable.

Holbrook's Liquid Slate comes nearest to slate itself, and is in many respects superior to any other article for covering black boards. It may be applied to plaster, boards or paper, and make a hard, durable and nearly dead surface. It is easily applied, dries quickly, and may be used with either chalk, crayons or pencils. The mixture is somewhat expensive, and yet it is probably good economy to use it. The cost is one dollar per pint or one dollar and fifty cents per quart. One pint will cover twenty-five square feet of surface, making but four cents per square foot. Directions accompany each can.

Slates are of course best for school purposes, but their expense places them out of reach of most of our schools. They cost from forty to eighty cents per square foot. There is said to be an excellent slate quarry in our own State, in the Lake Superior region, which, if worked, might so reduce the price of slates as to put

them in the reach of all. It is to be hoped that the matter may be investigated. So much for the preparation of black boards.

A few words in regard to position. If possible the main board should be in front of the school when in their seats. Other boards may well be distributed around the walls. It is next to impossible to get too much black board room. Boards are usually placed too high, especially in primary schools. They should, in primary rooms, extend to within two feet of the floor.

If the board is of any value it is always economy to use crayons. They should be used only for the regular purposes of school and not worn out in useless scribbles and caricatures, as is often the case. Pupils should be permitted to use the boards only when they will draw and write as well as they can, and for the purpose of improvement. White crayons should cost but twenty-five cents a box and can be made much cheaper.

DIRECTIONS FOR MAKING CRAYONS.

A school, or the schools of a town, may be supplied with crayons very cheaply, made after the following directions, given by Prof. Turner, of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb:

Take five pounds of paris white, one pound of wheat flour, wet with water and knead it well, make it so stiff that it will not stick to the table, but not so stiff as to crumble and fall to pieces when it is rolled under the hand.

To roll out the crayons to the proper size, two boards are needed,—one to roll them *on*, the other to roll them *with*. The first should be a smooth pine board, three feet long and nine inches wide. The other should also be pine, a foot long and nine inches wide, having nailed on the under side, near each edge, a slip of wood one-third of an inch thick, in order to raise it so much above the under board, as, that the crayon, when brought to its proper size, may lie between them without being flattened.

The mass is rolled into a ball and slices are cut from one side of it about one-third of an inch thick; these slices are again cut into strips about four inches long and one-third of an inch wide, and rolled separately between these boards until smooth and round.

Near at hand, should be another board three feet long and four inches wide, across which each crayon, as it is made, should be laid so that the ends may project on one side—the crayons should be laid in close contact and

straight. When the board is filled, the ends should be trimmed off so as to make the crayons as long as the width of the board. It is then laid in the sun, if in hot weather, or if in winter, near a stove or fire-place, where the crayons may dry gradually, which will require twelve hours. When thoroughly dry, they are fit for use.

An experienced hand will make one hundred and fifty in an hour.

For the Schoolmaster.
School Government.

THERE are two kinds of government, positive and negative. By positive I mean that kind which overcomes wrong by developing and keeping active the better faculties. Negative, is that kind which restrains from evil through fear of consequences. One cures the evil, the other may keep it from external action, but the real still continues. In state, negative government may now be necessary, but in schools and families I think never, unless the ignorance of the parent and teacher makes it necessary. Positive government is the only true and permanently effectual government that the teacher can successfully practice. The rod may restrain, but it cannot cure, but is more likely to increase the wrong than otherwise. The positive government was taught and practiced by the great and good Teacher in all His intercourse with the children of man. "Overcome evil with good," was the injunction to all teachers who might assume that office. To practice this mode of government requires great wisdom and skill on the part of the educator. The teacher should have a thorough knowledge of those whom he would control. An acquaintance with the physical and intellectual developments of the child should be unerring and scientific. The child, or pupil, should be understood and his tendencies comprehended at first sight. The faculties and capabilities of the mind should be the only basis of control. The strong and weak points should determine the kind of lever and motive power to be used. The too strong and largely developed faculties should be rendered passive by calling into action weaker and undeveloped ones. Evil tendencies and inclinations should be overcome by inspiring good purposes and nobler aspirations. The mind properly awakened to that which is good would have little inclination to do or think evil. True, the teacher's supremacy in school must be established, but in no way can it be so successfully and ef-

fectually felt as by establishing his superior goodness. In no other way can he become truly positive to his pupils. If the teacher is really good he can truly sympathize with the little weaknesses of pupils and prevent their little wrongs by his unerring and positive magnet of goodness. It is a true saying, "that an ounce of prevention is better than a pound of cure," and no where is it more applicable than in the government of children. The teacher should foresee the evil and prevent its action by changing the current into good channels. Thus will governing become pleasant and easy and in no danger of getting out of order each day. That system of government which daily needs repairing is hard and subjects the teacher to wearisome days and restless nights. The greatest obstacle with which the teacher has to contend is the ignorance of parents and their unjust interference with the regulations of school. Often are wisdom's ways perverted and the best plans frustrated by an ignorant, superstitious parent or guardian. But the true teacher will not be easily turned aside from his purpose. A definite purpose is in his mind, a clear understanding of the work he wishes to accomplish, the harmonious growth and a permanent and ever-increasing good is to be attained, and the weakness and ignorance of parents cannot long disconcert his plans or make his efforts for good ineffectual. Let the teacher set his standard high, being satisfied with nothing less than the cure of antagonisms and the establishing a permanent and symmetrical growth. A teacher thus laboring will have the greatest reward, a full realization of a heaven within. E. C.

Centreville.

From the New York Teacher.

Who Are the Best Advisers and Teachers?

BY G. D. HUNT.

THE individual who is best qualified to instruct others, is both a theorist and a practitioner. He may be more of the former than the latter; that is, according to the common acceptance of the term. But he may in fact be called a practical man, when we consider what he has prompted his pupils to do, by his timely advice. His work is seen in their success, and in the accomplishments that they have derived from him. Many a man has passed his life in visionary scheming, and died in poverty and obscurity, while his speculations have developed practical ideas in the arts, sciences and political

economy of the world, which practical men have turned into important agencies of their own prosperity. Many skillful teachers, and many wise, moral instructors have realized but little pecuniary reward from that which they have taught others. Sometimes untoward circumstances stood in the way, and in others they were too much engaged in their abstract speculations. The ideal pleased them better than the real, as they found it; or rather the former was readily presented to their minds, and the latter was found difficult and repulsive. The actual required manual labor, or pecuniary expense, while the ideal cost only a little mental effort.

That person is the best teacher or adviser who can reach the case of his pupils. He must be "touched with a feeling of their infirmity." And then he must know how to apply his healing power to their respective cases. He should comprehend the length and breadth of their ignorance and their mental wants. And it is a great thing to know how and when to supply these. He should not wound the feelings of those of dull intellect by a lordly display of his erudition, nor be too bold to expose the turpitude of the vain and vulgar. In the case of these he should make their conscience be their accuser; and the former should be encouraged with the thought that they *can do something*.

Those who know the most are not always the best instructors. Too often they estimate everybody by themselves; and they can not make allowance for the deficiency of intellect which is often found. Because they acquire knowledge and wisdom with ease they think that others can do the same. Here they are grossly mistaken. If any person would be a good instructor he must become acquainted with the various grades of capacity in those who are in their pupilage, and then he must know how to deal out to them such items of knowledge as they are capable of receiving, and how to excite in them an earnest craving to acquire still more. He who breathes into his pupils the spirit of learning and stirs up their ambition to become wise and good, is the true teacher.

The most successful business men are often very poor advisers, simply because they have been always too intently engaged in their special pursuits to know much (if anything) about any others, and about the art of teaching or advising. And when they would rather exult in *their own good luck* than condescend to aid in bringing "*those of low estate*" to a level with

themselves, the effect is bad indeed. Many who have made great and signal failures in the different secular vocations have profited by their misfortunes, and now are very competent to instruct others, and especially to warn against the causes of their own disasters. The bankrupt merchant who can point out to others the causes of his calamity and the various casualties of trade is a better man than his opulent neighbor, who rolls along in success and prosperity and yet cannot or will not advise or encourage those who are less fortunate than himself.

There are many who make no particular profession of being instructors and yet they at times give some of the most impressive and useful lessons. Every person has his "*mollis tempora fundi*;" and these need to be sought after by those who would teach and advise. If the proper words be spoken in these times the effect is good. And a good teacher or adviser is always on the watch for them. Unconscious teaching is often as effective as any.

The motives, in teaching or giving advice, are often as important as the lesson to be taught or the advice offered. And the pupil often understands them well. That which comes from sinister motives he will despise, though it be just what he needs. But when he perceives that it comes from an honest heart and contemplates his good, he takes it with gratitude, he treasures it up in his own heart and puts it into practice. Not so, when advice and teaching come from an exultation in general success and a vain display of erudition. Fostering pride is always contemptible. Let the adviser or teacher show that he wishes well to those whom he would instruct, that he feels for them, and will rejoice in their improvement; and he will thus put new life in them. His words will be like seed sown in good ground, that will produce abundantly.

THERE ARE NO TRIFLES.—There are no such things as trifles in the biography of man. Drops make up the sea. Acorns cover the earth with oaks and the ocean with navies. Sands make up the bar in the harbor's mouth, on which vessels are wrecked; and little things in youth accumulate into character in age, and destiny in eternity. All the links in that glorious chain which is in all, and around all, we can see and admire, or at least admit, but the staple to which all is fastened, and which is the conductor of all, is the throne of Deity.

WHAT the Christian world wants is more love. Love rules his kingdom without a sword.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Love of Society and Some Topics Connected Therewith.

[CONTINUED FROM PAGE 140, APRIL NUMBER.]

AND here it may be said that we deviate from nature's method, when we separate boys from girls in the school-room, the academy or the college. That we do in such cases deviate from nature, is, I think, conclusive argument against such separation.

The society of the gentler sex seems to call out whatever is nobler and more exalted in man, while the amiable and winning qualities of woman are never so apparent as in the company of gentlemen. Each seems, unconsciously, to have recourse to the higher faculties of its nature, and to summon to the scene whatever is charming or admirable in itself. It is in accordance with this idea, that Milton represents Adam as saying to Eve,—

I from the influence of thy looks receive
Access in every virtue, in thy sight
More wise, more watchful, stronger, if need were,
Of outward strength; while shame, thou looking on,
Shame to be overcome or over-reached,
Would utmost vigor raise, and raised, unite."

Why it is that males and females, whether children or adults, behave better, and are better when brought up together than when separate, may defy all attempts at analysis, but facts, experience, I believe, prove that they do.

We have all seen boys and girls go to school together, through the primary, the grammar, and often through the high school, and no one sinks the evils of the system counterbalance the advantages. But invariably, in the New England States, the young ladies are debarred from entering the colleges, and are often separated from the young men in the high school. Why should those, who, without detriment, have been for twelve years members of the same classes in the public schools, be separated on entering college? Or why should those children who have been in the lower grades of the public schools eight years together, not keep together on entering the high school?

I can see but four reasons for this separation. First, in the case of the college, it may arise from the idea that the education there received is of so high and too abstruse a nature for woman's capacity. Second, that equally advanced, but somewhat different courses of study from those pursued by young men, are best fitted for young ladies. Third, that *when the high school, in*

the boys' department, instead of imparting mental training and literary culture generally, is made a special preparatory or training school for callings that women do not pursue, there should be a different course in another room for the girls. Fourth, that it is best to keep the sexes, at certain ages, separate.

So far as the intellectual portion of woman's education is concerned, that part which is to develop mental power and is for discipline, I know not why her education should differ from man's; her training with reference to her future duties as a housekeeper and a mother must, of course, be different.

But I suspect that there still lurks in the minds of many men, an opinion that woman is intellectually inferior to man; I must say that, up to the age of sixteen, they do not appear so in the schools, being generally brighter and farther advanced at that age than boys. Certainly in a century that produces a Mrs. Somerville, Mrs. Browning, Mrs. Stowe and a Miss Hosmer, we need not fear that they *necessarily* prove inferior in after life. If the intellectual status of woman on the whole is to-day inferior to that of man, it is something for which the men are in great part to blame; this inferiority, so far as it exists, is barbarism, and operating upon us through mothers, wives and sisters, retards our civilization, (for, after all, the home, where mothers and sisters of right reign supreme and to which they impart their own delicacy and subtle refinement, is the greatest and best civilizer); it is something to be ashamed and got rid of as soon as possible.

But notice that it is not claimed that they should have the *same* education. Appropriate differences therein, by producing additional variety in mind and character, make the love for each other's society stronger than ever.

Let that man beware who refuses to recognize as his equal that woman whom he has taken for life as a *help-mate* for him. Let that young lady also beware, who gladly lets pass by, unimproved, an opportunity for obtaining a good intellectual education, from fear of being called "strong-minded," and because she knows that "smart" women are disagreeable to most men. A good education does not make a lady less attractive to the most desirable men; does not make her less amiable or less affectionate. Do you suppose that that sweet poetess, first of her sex, whose last dying strains have just reached us from that fair Italian city, lost a shade even of any feminine trait, through the great intel-

lectual gifts she possessed and the fine education that she had received?

It may be said by some who wish to keep young men and women apart in the high school and college, that otherwise attachments for each other might be, and would be likely, to be formed there, ere age and experience have made them good judges of their own or of others' character, or of what is best for their interests. From some experience, as scholar and teacher, for four years in two normal schools, where young people of both sexes between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five congregate, I do not think such engagements, — though not to be encouraged, perhaps not wise or advisable, certainly never to be entered into rashly or unadvisedly, — are alarmingly frequent, or very much to be mourned over and deplored when they do occur. And it must be borne in mind that people in the humbler walks of life are less restrained from forming engagements by prudential and financial reasons than are the rich; such engagements are more likely to be in them the result of genuine affection, an advantage indeed, vouchsafed them over those more scheming in their alliances.

Another reason for this separation may be, that the vicious and designing would otherwise have opportunities for doing great harm. They do harm wherever they are; the question is, would they do greater harm in a mixed school. I think not, because the tone of the whole school would naturally be more elevated in mixed than in separate schools, and because the preponderance of feeling and of sentiment would be so strongly against such.

A result of partial absence from society can be seen in the inhabitants of small villages, hamlets and farm-houses, remote from cities and the great lines of travel and communication. Their existence passes in a dull monotony, unknown in places where human beings throng and where new faces are constantly seen. Thought is with them less vigorous, life less intense, intelligence at a lower ebb. Nor, I suspect, can such places claim for themselves, as an advantage that they enjoy, a higher morality than exists in the cities. The opinion extensively prevailing, that the city is worse than the country, is thought by many to be erroneous. It may be more dangerous to those not acquainted with it, and hence the origin of the belief.

Let these remote settlements, of which I have spoken, now be connected by railroad and telegraph with the world beyond them; new life and enterprise are infused into them; new wants

are felt or created; a larger field for action is at once displayed. The nation, no longer an aggregation of isolated provinces, suspicious of and hostile to each other, because not understanding each other, becomes compacted and vitalized throughout. Steam and electricity bring communities near to each other and make them one; and it is wonderful to see the great cities of the north, agitated at once by the same hopes and fears, throb in unison, as the news of victory or defeat flashes along the wires from one to the other across the continent, joining them all into one mighty brotherhood.

Thus love of society is a natural one; in the home a field has been provided for its development, and objects on which it may be lavished; the individual is satisfied, but nature has her own ends, other than these, in view. Individuals, brought together in society, soon begin to modify each other's character and dispositions, affecting each other in ways of endless complexity and variety. Culture is promoted; benefits are received and conferred; mutual forbearance is called for; mutual encouragement is given; power is developed; affection strengthened; example stimulates; decency, refinement and elegance, in dress, in manners and in conversation follow.

To whom are unknown two kinds of old bachelors and maiden ladies? The one carping, critical, acrid in disposition, grasping, selfish, unsocial; no genial sunshine thaws them; no generous impulse ever obliterates self from their thoughts. Tighter, sourer and more spiteful as age creeps over them, shunned by all, and welcomed by none, they are truly pitiful objects. Let allowance, large allowance, be made for the effects of disappointed affection, the desertion of friends, or the loss of property, to which all are liable. Still how different might they have lived, if, when misfortune came, instead of retiring to brood over their woes in solitude, they had kept the heart fresh by intercourse with friends; if chastened by sorrow, they had devoted themselves to the service of others; had been, like their happier opposites, by keeping in society, the good old uncle or aunt, always welcome to the children, beloved by the neighbors, ministering angels to the poor, whose praises shall oft be repeated to the next generation gathered around a parent's knees. Few, perhaps, knew the grief that lay hidden in their hearts; but they died triumphing, not railing at fate, but blessing God, who had enabled them to live so beautiful a life.

Children are very fond of society, and while

girls generally seek it at home, boys are too commonly left to seek it in the street. The results of such companionship are at times but too sad. The open, generous nature of boys welcomes any new comer to their fellowship, and, away from parents, they do not always frown on what they would look at with horror at home. It is an important question, then, for parents, "How can home be made attractive to boys?"

One important element in the home is society. The social instinct must not be crushed out, but nurtured within its sacred walls. That the society of home may be pleasant to the children, there should be cheerful obedience on their part, and a kindly rule on yours; have children to obey, then. Let kind voices greet them as they enter the house; interest yourself in their studies and plays, in their joys and trials. Tell them stories; show them innocent games; buy pleasant books and playthings according to your ability, and encourage in them kind and unselfish dispositions. They should seek and take delight in the society of their parents. If this society is not attractive, is not refined and improving, whither shall they turn? Every intellectual, social and moral trait that may adorn the parents, now produces its happiest results in drawing their offspring still closer to them. Let the children have little parties of their friends also. There need not be much expense attending these childish gatherings. Simple food, perhaps a trifle different from common, for variety's sake, is, at such times, enough for the table; let them love these parties, not for the nice eating that may accompany them, but for the pleasure they feel in the society of their friends.

Shall a boy be brought up in company with others, at school, or shall his education be conducted at home? If at school, what merry times he will have during recess and the "nooning," playing ball and "I spy," coasting and skating; or, if he be fortunate enough to live a long way from school, in playing with other boys on the way to and from school. But then there are the temptations to which children are exposed, which cause some parents to educate their boys and girls at home, keeping them from all except some choice companions. When this can be done, and most people cannot adopt this method, a purer conversation, better manners and an uncontaminated mind, are, for a time, the result. Yet these children must face the world sometime, and well-tried virtue is preferable to ignorance of evil.

There are also some decided advantages attending this mingling of boys of all sorts, in that republican institution, a common school. Children learn a great deal from each other, and it cannot be denied that while in school the good greatly preponderates over the evil. When taught at home, where everything is done for them, little by them, they are apt to become selfish. They lack, also, as an incentive to exertion, the emulation that is ever aroused in a class of active, vigorous minds. Models of fine scholarship and of good recitations are not daily seen by them, and this loss to the development of their mind will be serious. To compare, day by day, his quickness of perception and of action, his talents and abilities, with those of his mates, in the recitation or on the play-ground, shows a boy how he is to rank with others; brought up at home, he may rate himself higher or lower than he ought.

A volume might be written to show the good effects on society from the presence in it of helpless infancy and tottering age, of the poor, the sick and the unfortunate, those that we are apt to consider as burdens upon society. Fortunate is that household that counts among its treasures an infant; perhaps more fortunate that which honors a gray-haired guardian. What blessings shall each confer, returning, a thousand fold, the services rendered them. To the dull and selfish they shall seem but ministered unto, but the cunning eye shall detect in each of them beneficent spirits in disguise. I am always a little sorry for sisterless boys, brotherless girls and childless couples, and something like this lack is felt in new communities in remote settlements at the West, where gray-haired men are seldom seen.

We say that in this country we do much for the poor and the wretched among us; we point to the comfortable asylums, to the homes for the destitute and the aged, to our schools for the feeble-minded and the idiotic, and to our city missions. This is certainly an era of broad and comprehensive charities, which I hope do good to the recipients of them; but did they accomplish not a purpose for which they were designed, we could hardly afford to give them up, without providing some other channel through which our kindly impulses could flow, because of their good effect on ourselves. How they tend to make us forget self, remember others in our prosperity, lend a hand to the perishing and be thankful to God. Could a man in comfortable circumstances, guided solely by self-interest, be allowed, after due deliberation, to abolish or

not, as he might choose, the condition, "the poor ye have always with you," no change, by him, would be made in the lot of human beings.

How natural and agreeable in childhood is the society of relatives, of those dear ones whose love and duty it is to promote our welfare. Bye-and-bye, in the changes incident to all society, from the breaking up of households, by removals, marriages and deaths, we come to recognize and love the society of virtuous friends, of the good, while the former love remains, growing stronger and deeper. But as age creeps on, the mental eye, turned inwards, courts the society of its own pleasant thoughts; the scenes of youth still vivid and treasured there, the unselfish acts, the deeds of devotion, the resistance to temptation in the past, and the calmly awaited future, all give us of their content; in such society the soul is happy, joyous, even when friends are gone, strength fails and ambition lies dead. One flight higher still, and the thoughts commune with God; no higher can they go; perfect rest, perfect content cannot be found till that is reached; from that highest point, all other society, not lost from sight but transfigured, glorified, becomes sweeter and dearer than ever. For this end the love of society was implanted in us, in its natural growth, to go on unfolding, soaring even higher and higher, keeping its old loves, but still seeking a better. Many men, most men, in this life do not go through all these changes; some stop at one point, some at another; but perhaps in the good providence of God, in some way inexplicable to us, we may all come at last to know Him as he is, the most desirable object to our love of society.

X.

From the Connecticut Common School Journal.
A Lesson of the Times.

TEACHER, watch the earnest eyes;
For they gleam with glad surprise
As you tell the news in story,
Of the brave who won the glory,
Fighting on the river's tide
And the distant isle beside,
Winning, dying, side by side.

Teacher, see the patriot fire
Flash from youth's unchecked desire,
While you speak of traitors yet
On their way to Lafayette.
Think you they would shrink in battle,
Should they hear the cannon rattle?
Never! were they like their prattle!

Teacher, help them to be royal
Men of Might, by being loyal!

Stories of our fathers tell,
How they conquered as they fell
Freedom's birthright to regain,
As they burst the tyrant's chain,
Let the cannon speak again.

Teacher, spread the glorious word!
Battle's voice again is heard,
Glorious—fearful—joyous—sad;—
Awful—blessed—mournful—glad;
Teach the young heart thus to see,
What the price of liberty,
What the value to be free!

R. L. R.

Quarterly Report of the Superintendent of
Public Schools, Providence.

To the School Committee of the City of Providence:

GENTLEMEN:—As it is made imperative on the Superintendent, by your by-laws, to submit a written report at the close of each term, there must of necessity often be a repetition of the same suggestions and a great similarity in the language employed in describing the character and condition of our schools. No important changes can reasonably be expected, in a single term, in schools so thoroughly graded and organized as ours, and which, for the most part, are under the charge of able and efficient teachers.

The present term closes another school year, and the annual examinations of the High and Grammar Schools, with written questions, have recently taken place. At no former period have the results been so entirely satisfactory. It is not to be inferred, however, that our schools have reached the highest point of excellence, or that no further improvement is desirable. Much yet remains to be accomplished, both in methods of teaching and a judicious discipline. When we compare the present efficiency of our schools with the past, or with schools of a similar grade elsewhere, we have abundant reason to rejoice at our onward progress; yet there is an ideal standard of excellence not yet reached, to which we should ever aim.

There still continues a wide difference between our best and our poorest schools. This is to be attributed to the difference in the skill and efficiency of the teachers. Local causes may sometimes temporarily affect the condition of a school; but successful teachers readily and anxiously avail themselves of all that is valuable in the experience and observations of others, both in methods of teaching and in discipline, while the inefficient plod on in the same old

beaten track, adhering pertinaciously to their own self-conceited views.

There is nothing on which the highest welfare of our schools more vitally depends than on a judicious discipline. I have frequently referred to this subject in my former reports, and have given my views upon it at some length. But I am constrained to bring it again to the attention of the Committee, that something may be done to correct the evils that now exist. Some of these arise from too great severity, and others from too great laxity, in discipline. I have endeavored to enforce the decisions of the Committee, as expressed in their by-laws. But there are some teachers who, either through inability or disinclination, do not conform to them. Instead of making corporal punishment the last resort, and then only in extreme cases, they inflict it very often for slight and trivial offences, such as dropping a book, turning the head, or neglecting to sit in a particular posture. It is not an uncommon thing for little girls to be punished on the hand with a *katana*, and sometimes quite severely. Such things ought not so to be.

A teacher who has not moral power enough to control a school and enforce obedience without the constant application of the rod, has unquestionably mistaken his calling, and should relinquish his place to others more competent to discharge its responsible duties. The prevailing fault of teachers, who fail in governing, is that they talk too much. They are ever threatening, scolding, and ridiculing their pupils. Sometimes they are very harsh and severe, and at others indulgent in the extreme. The words of a teacher should be few, well chosen, and full of meaning. Dignity of manner and firmness of purpose, should ever be united with a mild and courteous demeanor. Demands given in an angry tone, lose more than half their force, and often arouse a rebellious spirit, while gentleness would have secured cheerful obedience.

There are some cases where teachers are too lenient and indulgent, and neglect to enforce a wise discipline, both in and out of school. Such schools must and do actually suffer, their pupils soon become disrespectful and impertinent, and neglect their most important duties. The first duty of every teacher is to govern his school; until this is done, nothing can be well done. I am well aware that the situation of a teacher is a difficult and a trying one; and when they enter upon their arduous duties, it ought not to be expected that they will have all the experience and wisdom of age, and unless they

are more than human, they will sometimes make mistakes. Let those parents who are without sin in this respect cast the first stone. But to magnify or discuss their faults supposed or real, in the presence of children, is unwise and pernicious to the best interests of the school. An irreparable injury is often done to children, by lessening their respect for the character and authority of their teachers. By such a course many parents have brought a crushing weight of sorrow upon their hearts, that time can never remove. Better, far better, that a child be punished too severely, or even without cause, than that he lose his reverence for authority and law. Obedience to authority, everywhere, in the family, in the school, and under every form of righteous government, cannot be impressed too early, nor with too solemn sanctions, on the youthful mind.

There are yet higher duties, which none but the truly conscientious will faithfully perform. I refer to the moral culture and training which is the basis of all that is pure and noble in the youthful mind. There has never been a period in the history of our schools when this was more imperatively demanded. More intellectual culture is not sufficient for the formation of those habits which give tone and permanency to character. The safety of the young depends upon their being early taught to resist the temptations that beset them, and to acquire that perfect self-control which is the only safeguard of virtue. To secure this, much can be and must be done in our schools. Unceasing vigilance should be used by all to guard against any influences that may tend, directly or indirectly, to corrupt the youth, or to lessen their regard for purity and virtue. The present age is one of peculiar trials and temptations for those just entering upon the freedom of boyhood.

It is with feelings of deep regret that I have again to bring before you the increasing evils of truancy and absenteeism. These are becoming more alarming and threatening every year. Something must soon be done for self-protection. No language of mine can adequately convey to you how much our schools are suffering from this cause. Every day hundreds are strolling in our streets, becoming familiar with the worst forms of vice, enticing others to leave their schools, and to join them in their wickedness. The truant act on our statute book is perfectly a dead letter—it is of no use whatever. Is there not sympathy enough in the hearts of the truly benevolent, or wisdom enough in our Legislature, to devise some

edy for this most prolific cause of misery and crime in our city?

One of the noblest works of charity of which our city can boast is the Children's Home. Those who originated this truly divine institution, and have sustained it by their self-denying labors and liberal benefaction, are justly entitled to the highest commendation. But there is another great work to be undertaken. There are yet in our city many orphans—many more unfortunate than orphans—just beginning the career of iniquity; and they will most assuredly pursue it, unless rescued by some benevolent hand, from an almost certain moral death. Cannot some plan be devised, or some arrangement with the Dexter Asylum, or the Children's Home, be made, by which so much inevitable suffering and misery may be avoided.

Numerous complaints have been made the past term in regard to the conduct of children in the school yards, and when going to and returning from school. Some prompt and decisive measures should at once be adopted. I have brought this subject to the attention of the Committee in the hope that parents may be induced to aid in checking an evil of no small magnitude. All the authority vested in the Superintendent will be exercised to its fullest extent to prevent the gross improprieties of conduct complained of.

The whole number of pupils admitted the past term into all of the schools, is 7829. The number received into the High School is 320; into the Grammar, 2017; into the Intermediate, 1995, and into the Primary, 3497.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

DANIEL LEACH,
Superintendent of Public Schools.

For the Schoolmaster.
Political Education.

A.

GENTLE reader, do not turn away from this article on account of the title. We do not intend to set forth the most direct method of educating the uncorrupted and modest youth of our land in all the mysteries and wily trickery of the expert *politician*. It is not the object of the writer of this series of articles to make political demagogues.

It may be the chief prerogative of *rebels* to fight behind *masked batteries*, but sure are we that the *bold warriors* of "*secessia*" are not the inventors of this mode of warfare. An *old enemy* of righteousness and of mankind has been even more cautious than they in concealing

his weapons and in hoisting false colors, by which means to obtain great conquests over the right and its adherents. Thus it has happened that the noun *politics*, and the adjective *political* have been appropriated by a certain class to a false use, and made frequently to serve as cloaks, beneath which to conceal much knavery and selfish trickery of those whose pretence it was to serve the public and labor for the good of the state.

The word *political* has descended to us through the ancient Romans from the old Greek *politikos*, from *polis*, a city; and originally referred to that which conduced to the welfare of the state or the city. *Political education*, then, would properly mean that culture which would prepare one to discharge properly his duties to the city of his residence, his state and his country. It means the education of the *citizen*.

It would include the knowledge of our form of government; of the fundamental principles on which a republic rests; a knowledge of the Constitution of the United States and of our own State; the general laws of more immediate public interest; the method of electing our officers; their duties and responsibilities; the proper method of transacting public business, and especially the claims of patriotism upon each one of us, and a specification of the duties which it calls upon us to perform.

It were needless to say that *all* these points cannot be discussed even briefly in the columns of a State educational journal, but in the series of articles to which this is designed to be introductory it is proposed to present familiarly, and in a practical manner, *some* points of interest in this wide range of important topics.

It will surely not be necessary at such a time as the present to offer any apology for discussing topics of such a character; and if such a discussion shall prove the means of awakening a new interest in our free institutions; of imparting any amount of knowledge of our wonderful constitution; of giving some young man a few useful hints relative to public business and public trusts, or of increasing in *any* minds an existing attachment to our institutions and our country; of making *any one* feel more proud of being an AMERICAN, the writer will feel amply rewarded for the necessary labor. M.

"Is it possible, Miss, that you don't know the names of some of your best friends?" "Certainly, I do not even know what my own may be in a year from this time."

"Like Father, Like Son."

My friend had spoken an impatient word to his little son, and I saw the child's face stained by the hot blood of anger. My friend saw the stain, also. What did he do? Repent of his impatience, and heal the hurt in his child by a gentler word? No. But he grew more impatient, and calling sharply to the boy, said, in a warning tone, "Take care, sir!"

Take care of what? Why, least punishment follow.

You ask as to the child's fault that punishment should be threatened. There was no fault. He had, in passing near a table in the room where I was talking with his father, accidentally touched a book lying on the edge, causing it to fall. The noise jarred on the father's sensitive nerves. Naturally irritable, he smote the child, as I have said, with an impatient word; and the child's spirit answered to the harsh rebuke in a hot face and flashing eyes.

"Take care, sir," repeated my friend, seeing that his warning admonition had produced no effect on the boy's roused spirit, smarting under an undeserved blow. The stain grew redder on his cheeks and brow; the eyes more intense; the lips more firmly shut. I saw defiance in the child's face.

"Why don't you pick up that book, sir?"

There was no sign of obedience.

"Did you hear me?" almost fiercely demanded the father. I shuddered, inwardly, but dared not interfere between my hot-tempered friend and his equally hot-tempered child. He might as well have spoken to deaf ears.

"Pick up that book, I say!"

The child did not stir.

"I shall not speak again," said my friend, in a suppressed voice. One minute passed in dumb silence; then rising with deliberation, he approached the boy, whose face had become pale, but not weak or fearful, and grasped one of his arms tightly. Time was still given for him to lift the book; but he was too angry to yield. I held my breath painfully, taking a long inspiration as my friend swept from the room, dragging the boy after him. He was gone for nearly five minutes, and then came back, flushed, nervous and excited, saying, as he sat down opposite me, "I'm out of all heart with that boy."

He looked sadly discouraged. I did not answer. After sitting for a few moments, he added, "Such a temper!—such a will! I never saw anything like it!"

But I answered nothing. What could I say

in approval of my friend's conduct? My silence was on the side of his own uneasy convictions, and he felt it to be so.

"What am I to do with the child?" he asked, interrogating my unspoken thought. "To give up to him—to let will and passion have their sway,—can only end in mortal ruin. He must come under the yoke. Is it not so?"

"Obedience is essential," I answered.

"So I think,—obedience at all hazards."

I did not assent to this extreme proposition.

"At all hazards," he repeated, with increasing force.

"It may be well," said I, "to look at the conditions of obedience before exacting the full measure of obligation."

"I am not sure that I understand you," answered my friend, with a slightly puzzled air.

"Obedience may be impossible."

"Was it impossible for John to lift that book from the floor?"

"Perhaps," said I.

"Perhaps!" My friend looked astonished.

"Morally impossible, I mean."

He shook his head doubtfully.

"A condition may render the easiest act so difficult of performance, that a man will look death in the face and yet not lift a hand in attempted execution. The act, in this case, becomes morally impossible."

"I do not see how you will apply that to my boy's case."

"Suppose," said I, "you were riding in one of our street cars, and a passenger on entering, and before you could make room for him, were to order you, in a rough, imperative manner, to move; what would be the result?"

"I would sit still in my place," answered my friend.

"And yet it would be the wisest course to give way, and not to be disturbed by any ungentlemanly rudeness."

"Perhaps it would; but I have that in me which will not submit to unjust encroachment. And I am quick in my resentment, as you know. To a gentlemanly demeanor I yield everything that is right; to rude exaction, nothing."

"Therefore it is that the condition of a demand may render obedience a moral impossibility."

"It is so," answered my friend.

"Has it not often happened," I continued, "that, under a momentary blind excitement, you have said or done things for which you were sorry, and yet, having said or done them, would not recede—growing more persistent in

the degree that you were assailed by angry efforts to drive you from the position taken, although, in your heart, you knew that you were wrong?"

I understood my friend's character, and knew its weak side.

"It is as you say," was his answer. "I can be led easily; but all the world cannot drive me—no, not even to do what is right."

"Has it never occurred to you," I asked, after a pause, "that your son is like you in this respect?"

I saw a quick change in my friend's countenance. The question had taken him unawares. A sudden light had streamed into an obscure corner of his mind.

"Like me?" His tone was like that of a man just awakening, and in surprise at some unexpected sight.

"Is it strange that he should be like you?" I queried.

"Perhaps not. I am his father." The surprise had already gone out of his voice, which had in it a shade of depression.

"'Like father, like son.' The adage is as much founded upon immutable law as upon observation. In homelier phrase, you have a chip of the old block. John's disposition is very much like your own, my friend. He is quick-tempered, strong-willed, independent, and instinctively opposed to coercion—easily led—hard to be driven. Have you never thought of this? never looked down into the clear mirror of his unsullied character, and seen a perfect image of yourself?"

My friend dropped his head upon his bosom, and sat a long time silent.

"The father," I said, as he sat musing, "reproduces himself in his children, with such modifications as the mother's life may give. I need not offer arguments to prove the fact; every man of rational perception sees that it must be so under the unvarying law of like producing like."

"I have no doubt of its being so," he replied.

"Does not this fact instruct us?" I went on.

"Does it not throw light upon that most difficult, yet most important of all our duties, the government of our children? First we must know the quality, condition, and capability of any material upon which we are to work. The plumber would fail in his efforts to produce a useful result if he wrought with wood instead of lead; and so with the gold-beater, if, instead of the most ductile of all metals, he subjected iron to his hammer-strokes. As in the lower world of nature, different forms require differ-

ent modes of treatment in order to eliminate their proper use, so in the higher world of mind. All objective differences are but images of mental differences. Mind is the true world; nature the representative and effect, and, as such, our instructor, if we will open our hearts to her teachings."

"I do not gainsay this," returned my friend. "I believe that it is so. I comprehend the important truth you have stated, that my child bears a likeness to his father. But what I do not see clearly is, the way in which I am to deal with him. How am I to correct in my boy, the perversities which he has by inheritance from his father?"

"The first thing," I answered, "is for you to pity him. To think compassionately of him, burdened, as he is, for life, with a hasty temper and a stubborn will."

I saw moisture come into my friend's eyes; the firm mouth gave way a little.

"May I refer to the scene that passed here a little while ago?" I asked.

"Speak freely," returned my friend.

"John committed no fault."

There was a slight motion of surprise in my friend's face.

"Accidentally he touched a book, and it fell upon the floor—this and only this."

"He was careless," said my friend, with a slight effort at self-justification.

"You, or I, or any one might have done the same thing. Nay, every day of our lives we do just as careless things. When the mind is absorbed, we cannot always guard our movements. Now put yourself in John's place. Imagine the book touched without intention, and it falls upon the floor; and imagine as sharp a word spoken to you as you spoke to him—what state of mind would have resulted?"

I paused for his answer, but he did not reply.

"Could you have helped the rush of angry waves. Hurt pride—a sense of wrong—blind impulse—would have made you as stubborn as you saw him."

"Perhaps it would." My friend's eyes were on the floor. He spoke in a subdued voice.

"You cannot overcome the mind's defect by external force," I added. "There must be a wise appliance of moral means. Deal by him as you would yourself be dealt by, in like circumstances. Cure his disease by the remedy that reason tells you would heal your own. Weaken his angry wilfulness by removing excitements. Control yourself in his presence. Hold back your quick-springing impulses."

Never let him see you angry, nor find you unjust or unreasonable. Always speak mildly and kindly, except when in grave rebuke or remonstrance for unmistakable faults, self-acknowledged. Help him with his load of hereditary evil tendencies, instead of adding a part of your own burden to the weak shoulders of a child. If you cannot control yourself, with reason, judgment, years, and experience on your side, what can you expect from him?"

I stopped, lest I were pressing home upon him too closely.

Just at this moment the door opened, and the child came in. The book still lay where it had fallen from the table. I turned and saw the little fellow's questioning eyes upon his father's face. There was a look of grief about his lips. Nothing was said to him; in fact, no notice, apparently, taken of him. My friend changed the conversation to a new theme. John stole softly across the room, and sat down noiselessly, taking as he did so, a long sighing breath. Presently he slipped from the chair, and moving quietly to where the book lay on the floor, lifted it and placed it on the table, pushing it to some distance from the edge; in this very act, showing his recognition of the fault for which he had been harshly blamed as only an accident, against the recurrence of which he would guard, by placing the book where it would be in no danger of falling. I noticed another deep breath as the child's burdened heart sought to relieve the impression that still lay heavily upon it. Then he began, by slow approaches, to draw near his father, and at last stood by his knee. My friend placed his arm around him, as he still talked to me, and tightened it with a loving pressure, made stronger by pity and repentance. John looked up into his face; and then his father stooped down and kissed him. Reconciled; yet, as there had been wrong and suffering, and the graver of memory cuts deepest when feeling is most intense, was not something lost in that brief struggle between father and child, which could never be restored?—something hurt, the pain of which would endure through natural life?

These are questions for sober thought.

My friend, with all his infirmities of temper, had a strong love for children; a quick moral sense; a love of right and justice. These were all on the side of a truer self-discipline as affecting the little ones given to him of God, that they might be trained for heaven. I saw him, afterwards, under strong provocation; and he did not forget himself. My presence may have

revived in his memory the scene just described, and so put him on his guard. Even if that were so, much was gained; for all right efforts give a measure of strength, and erect barriers against evil. We overcome what is wrong in our natural tempers by resisting the impulse to act in a moment of provocation; not by repenting and resolving only. The repentance and the resolution are all well enough, and give strength for resistance against the hour of temptation; but only in the degree that we resist and refrain in the hour of trial, do we overcome and rise superior to our enemies.

COMFORT AT HOME.—A powerful attraction to home is a cultivation of the spirit of neatness and elegance throughout all its arrangements. The eye scarcely ever wearies of a beautiful prospect or a pleasing picture. The aspect of a home should resemble the latter; it should tell its own tale; its atmosphere should breathe of comfort, and its quiet simple ornamentation delight the eye. There is a brightness about a well kept home, which neither wealth or magnificence can impart unaccompanied by taste. To keep best rooms or best of anything to be used only for visitors' accommodation, is not the wisest policy for a wife to adopt; on the contrary, company rooms contrast too greatly with daily living rooms, and suggest unpleasant comparisons. Neatness and elegance should go hand in hand, one cannot exist without the other; but it should be neatness far removed from formality, and elegance independent of costliness and profusion. Every article should appear as if intended for use, and every right article in its right place; the very chairs and tables should be suggestive of comfort; not arranged with stiff precision, but in such a way that the attractive portions of a room shall be visible to its occupants.

Nobody doubts that every teacher gives tone to his school. A gloomy teacher keeps a gloomy school. A peevish teacher makes a peevish school. A merry teacher has a merry school. Whatever be the predominant characteristic of the teacher, that quality becomes ingrained into the school. Moroseness, irritability, despondency, as certainly affect children unhappily as they do persons of mature years. Hence, it is a matter of great importance that those who train children should exhibit in themselves those qualities and feelings which will contribute most to the happiness and well-being of their young charge.—*Teacher and Pupil's Friend.*

For the Schoolmaster.
A School-Boy's Composition.

[We esteem the following composition, recently written by one of the boys of our school, a sufficient compensation for the long suffering of a term or two with ordinary school productions. It is specie, amidst a vast paper currency. This young gentleman seems to believe in object-teaching; or rather in *object-learning*. In this composition he has furnished us indubitable evidence of *knowing something*; evidence which we should by no means find in any written examination, or in any catechizing in Latin grammar or algebra. For that only may be called *knowledge* which one learns with his own senses or is the product of his own consciousness. And is it not infinitely a grander and more beautiful thing to know the muskrat *at first hand*, than to know the whale or the elephant, or astronomy, or virtue or truth, by hearsay only, and from the books of other men? Our pedagogic pen has meddled no farther than to alter some trifling matters of arrangement and punctuation.—T.]

THE MUSKRAT.

The muskrat is one of the most cunning and ingenious little animals. It is second only to the beaver in the ingenuity with which it builds its home in the ponds or rivers. It will burrow in the ground like a fox or rabbit.

The muskrats are born in the spring, three or four at a litter, and are then as small as a common mouse. The little fellows grow rapidly, and by November they are quite large, and are covered with a long glossy coat of fur. It is for this fur that they are hunted.

In the summer they begin their house-building in the pond. They never work in the daytime. It is amusing to watch them at work. Five or six work on one house or bed. One will dive to the bottom and collect a little bunch of weeds and grass, about as large as a hen's egg, and swim with it to the place where he intends to make his bed. This is always in a shallow part of the pond, or on a bunch of bushes or a bog. Here he deposits his load. So they will continue bringing little sticks or any other scraps they can find. At the least noise they will disappear under the water, and not come up again very soon. The bed rises two or three feet above the water, just in the shape of a little hay-cock, having a cavity in the centre, just above the water-level. In this *bed a family will live well enough through the*

summer, but as soon as winter begins to approach, they set about finding a more comfortable and safe habitation.

For this purpose they begin to start a burrow in the bottom of the pond, three or four yards from the edge of some steep bank. They continue this hole under the bottom until they reach the bank, and then it rises above the water-level, continuing up the bank from one yard to a rod, being one or two feet below the surface. Sometimes these rats injure meadows by digging so near the surface, that the cattle break through into them and injure their legs.

In catching the muskrat various methods are practiced. One way is to place a strong twine net at the mouth of the hole, and then, by thumping on the bank, you can sometimes drive them out into the trap. Sometimes they will not pursue this course, and then the only way to get them is to dig for them. This is done by taking a cane or a stick, and tracing the course of the hole until you find where it enters the bank, and then digging after them until you find them. Sometimes many muskrats live in one hole. I once got seven out of one hole, at a pond on the road to Stonington, called Tongue Pond. Sometimes the holes are very nicely constructed, having many entrances and branches. The way to catch the muskrats, then, is to follow up each hole separately. They always run to the farthest end of the hole when they hear any one digging and sometimes one will come down to reconnoitre, and see if there is any chance to get by into the pond. I have sometimes been digging after them when they have begun to dig to, and by filling in the dirt behind them, so hard that it is impossible to distinguish it from the unmoved soil, make it hard work to follow their course. Sometimes, when the hole runs very near the surface, they will dig out at the end of the hole, and make for the water. But they are very awkward on the land, running one or two rods very swiftly, and then appearing completely exhausted.

The muskrat feeds on the water-lily roots, and other green vegetable matter. They sometimes leave the pond at night, and go into the gardens near by, on a foraging expedition, and return with an ear of corn or a cabbage-leaf. When eating, they sit like a squirrel.

In winter, when the pond is covered with ice, and the muskrats cannot come to the surface to get air, they dive to the bottom, and by making a commotion in the mud, cause bubbles of air to rise on the under side of the ice. Then com-

ing up, they will breathe the air in these bubbles.* On going to a pond in winter, if there is clear ice on, you can follow the route of the muskrat by the string of bubbles which he leaves.

As a proof of the cunning of these little animals, I will relate one anecdote. My father and I had been hunting one old rat all over a small pond out in Cranston. We had concluded to give it up, after hunting a long time. As we were leaving the pond, I looked back, and saw a lily-pad rising and falling in rather a suspicious manner, and on observing more closely, I saw the nose of the muskrat under it. My father took his pistol and shot it. I cut a long pole, fished it out, and took off its skin.

One thing curious about the muskrat is, that its hind feet are webbed, like a duck's, and when the muskrat is dead, the hind legs never become stiff, as is the case with other animals.

* We have always held, as an article of our chemical creed, that our rat-hunter's "air" is carburetted hydrogen, and therefore unfit for animal respiration; but before superior authority, we surrender willingly our belief.—Ed.

From the Massachusetts Teacher.

A Hard Case.

"You will have one boy in school who will make you trouble. John — is a *hard case*. I have not been able to do much with him."

So, many years ago, said a gentleman to whose position, as principal of a high school, I was about to succeed. Thus forewarned, I carefully scrutinized, at the earliest opportunity, the appearance of Master John. He was a stout boy, about fifteen years of age, possessing, evidently, great physical and mental activity. The form of his head and the expression of his countenance indicated a strong will, large combativeness and abundant mirthfulness. His face manifested frankness and fearlessness, and his keen eye looked as if it could flash with fight, as well as sparkle with fun. The conclusion arrived at was that John could be led, but could not be driven. Upon the whole I was pleased with the boy; and I began to suspect that he had been considered a hard case, not wholly of his own fault, but because only the worst phase of his character had been brought out.

For some days Master John was suffered to do as he pleased; and he very soon showed that he pleased to make more fun than could be al-

lowed in school. John must be checked. The question was, How shall it be done?

When about closing school one afternoon, I said to him, "John, I wish to see you after school." His look seemed to say in reply, "Who cares?" After the scholars had gone, I said to John, who appeared to be ready for any emergency, "What have you got to do this afternoon?" "Nothing, Sir;" he answered. "Well, John, I am going to prepare some experiments in the laboratory, and I should like to have you help me if you will." Instantly every shade of defiance vanished from his countenance; his eyes sparkled with delight, and he eagerly said, "Yes, sir! yes, sir! I should like to help you first-rate!" He went with me to the laboratory, where I made work for him; and whatever it was safe for him to do, I permitted and instructed him to do.

From that day, whenever I went to the laboratory, Master John went. He was pleased with the confidence placed in him. He was interested in scientific illustrations and investigations. He became studious; ceased from untimely sport; tried to satisfy his teacher; and, in a word, became one of the most docile and manly pupils in the school.

Said his mother to me, one day, "Mr. —, what have you been doing to my son?" "Why, Madam," I asked. "Why," said she, "I used to have to drive him to school, but now he won't stay at home, on any account."

For about a year Master John maintained an excellent character. At the end of that time I went to another field of labor, and he passed to the hands of my successor. This gentleman, who many years ago left the teacher's desk, believed in the most rigid and direct enforcement of law. Whoever did not yield implicitly to his authority, must be forcibly compelled to yield. All must come squarely up to his requirements, or be punished. He had little faith in indirect ways and means of influencing children. "There is the law," he said; "obey it, or suffer the consequences."

And John did suffer the consequences. The new discipline aroused the combative part of of his nature; compulsion begat resistance; severity produced hate; until, at last, the ill-will engendered between teacher and pupil culminated into a personal conflict, in which the teacher, by his superior strength, dashed the head of his pupil against a stove, and left him bleeding upon the school-room floor. John had again become the "worst boy in the school." Whose fault was it? John's, or the Master's?

For the Schoolmaster.
A Strange Scholar.

BY JOE, THE JERSEY MUTE.

MANY years since I taught a young lady, or girl, I surely do not know which, named Sarah Jane C——, who lost her hearing by an attack of scarlet fever during her infancy. She was considered one of the most beautiful girls in the establishment where I was then, as now, employed. Naturally of an amiable disposition, and lively in her manners, it is not to be wondered at that she was loved by all her companions. Her mind was by no means bright, but capable of cultivation. Those who know me best say, with how much truth I know not, that I am naturally of a cold disposition; but she was so attached to me, that she followed me about the room, talking to me as if I were her father. Her prattle struck me as juicy with heart. If she committed an error in my presence, it could not escape the punishment it deserved; for it was my duty to form the manners of my scholars.

Sarah watched my features, sitting or standing, for "reasons best known to herself." She was quite lively, but her liveliness was of an agreeable kind; she seemed, indeed, the lady born. If she saw me pleased with anything she had accomplished, she was suddenly transformed, as it were, into a baby-jumper. She did not hesitate to show me almost everything which she either had of her own, or borrowed from her friends. What was the more remarkable, was, that she, mere girl as she was, did not like to lose sight of me for more than half a day, and wished to hear of me at all hours of the day if she had not an opportunity to see me during the day.

Sarah's bump of benevolence was well developed, to judge from the many kindnesses which I received from her. Every child ought, according to my sentiments, to be kind, not only to its companions, but to strangers. I never refuse anything which my pupils offer me; for, if I reject the offerings of childish generosity, my scholars will neglect not only me, but their studies also; but, if they see me ready and willing to devour anything which their warm and generous impulses incline them to give me, they will feel themselves honored, and be encouraged to study. In the summer of 185—, Sarah came into my school-room, holding some candies and *cakes in her apron, which she emptied into my hands, to my no small surprise.* On New Year's

day she presented me with a small daguerreotype of herself, which I was at first reluctant to accept, because I thought it unbecoming in a teacher to accept favors of so delicate a nature. On another occasion she gave me a handsome pin-cushion, which I was very happy to accept, because it was more within the propriety of alms-giving, if alms-giving it may be called. She was almost crazed with joy when she saw that I was pleased with the thing.

I desired her to manufacture a piece of ornamental needlework with my name surmounted by stars. Gladly she went at it, but the job was not as well executed as I wished it to be, and the poor girl burst into tears. I offered her a quarter dollar for the job. At first she refused to accept it, but I forced it into her purse. With the money that I had given her, she bought her daguerreotype, for the express purpose of giving it to me, angel that she was! Again: she presented me with four specimens of handiwork, requesting me to send them to my friends "if I pleased, with my respects," (to use her words) and not her's! The first was a representation of a cross with the word "Joe" at the top, and a Bible at the foot; the second represented a kitten, around which was inscribed, "A kitten is very pretty"; the third contained the two words, "My Bible"; and the fourth was emblematical of the morning star. Nor did her liberality end here. She purchased two shining metals, the names of which, bless me, I cannot recall at this distance of period, and she gave them to me.

She saw my comb, which, I blush to confess, was very old, and said she would buy me an ivory comb. I could not refrain from laughing at her notion. The good girl, "strange to relate," brought me a bottle of cologne-water, and, taking my handkerchief out of my pocket, sprinkled a few drops of cologne-water on it. She went so far as to ask me if she might wash and iron my handkerchief.

She would not accept anything from me, as she said, because she was afraid I would want it. One day she was sick, and therefore could not attend to her studies. I offered her some medicine, which, with many expressions of grateful thanks for my kind feelings, she begged to be excused from accepting — assigning as a reason, that the medicine was expensive and should not be given gratuitously.

I was frequently amused with her way of doing things. If I laughed at her little eccentricities, she was not at all offended, for as before

observed, her temper was soft. She used often to bring me a tumbler of water when I was thirsty.

One day I heard that Sarah was often in the society of a naughty girl, and calling her I told her she must avoid the erring girl, or she might be naughty like her. I had an opportunity soon after of seeing the naughty girl propose some trick to her. The indignant blood mounted up to Sarah's temples, and she told her she did not wish her company any longer. The mischievous one was exceedingly unwilling to lose such an agreeable friend as she found Sarah to be, and promised to try to be a good girl.

On the completion of her term of instruction, Sarah offered to live in my family in the capacity of a servant. This offer, coming from one who appeared to be already well qualified to adorn the drawing-room, I was scarcely in condition to swallow, but she was determined, she said, not to miss her teacher. I was at length prevailed on to take her into my service, not, however, without allowing her equal privileges with the members of my family. She is everything I wish her; and, to deal frankly with her, she would be calculated to make the best of wives.

From the Pennsylvania School Journal.

Teaching, A Profession.*

THIS is truly a world of development, both physical and intellectual. Progress seems the grand characteristic. Geology discloses to us the fact, that our earth has been for countless ages, and is yet, the theatre of beautiful and systematic development; and we are led, from a view of all the facts, to conclude that the Divine Author has implanted within her the restless, untiring causes that produce those changes. But whilst physical development affords an ample field for our contemplation and amusement, it is the mighty triumphs of the mind that call for our heartfelt admiration. Man, by the powers of his intellect, has hewn out from material rough and unseemly indeed, truths as imperishable as adamant, with which he has reared temple on temple, with which he has formed the most beautiful organizations,—marvellous alike for truth and utility, and dedicated to the comfort and happiness of his fellow beings.

The sciences, both exact and mixed, are the result of ages of patient toil, by zealous, enthu-

siastic minds. Although there are many self-evident truths, yet the knowledge that now makes up, for instance, the science of chemistry, law or medicine, has only been collected by the most persevering efforts, after the trial of many severe tests, and the discarding of many theories long held to be correct. Truly they have come up through much tribulation to contribute to the wants of man and bless him.

It would be pleasant for us, my friends, to travel back with you and view the history of the sciences just named, or any other, and note their different stages of development;—how, to their first limited proportions truth after truth was added, and from which error after error was extracted, till finally they assumed the form and stature of a noble, reliable system and became the handmaids of their author; but time nor circumstances will permit, and we can only say that theirs is a history of progress and development, and the time was when even vague theories on those subjects existed not.

It devolves upon us, this evening, to present for your consideration a new and beautiful science, and urge its claims, as best we can, for a place among the "learned professions";—amongst those callings that are, in themselves, dignified and honorable, and tend in a high degree to promote the social and intellectual well-being of the human race; I refer to the profession of teaching.

I am aware that many sneer at the idea of ranking this calling among the professions, but so far as our observation goes, those sneers have been in direct proportion to their author's ignorance of the subject of his ridicule.

We shall note, in the first place, some of the natural causes that make the distinction between a profession and a merely mechanical occupation. There are only two kinds of labor, physical and mental, and although the occupations of men are exceedingly various, they are all performed by either the one or the other of these means, or by a combination of them, and whilst in most employments, both the physical and mental powers are engaged, it is rarely that they are equally taxed in the same occupation. In one, the physical predominating, in another, the mental.

Society, in its awards, makes great distinctions between those two kinds of labor. In proportion as the mind, rather than the muscle, has been employed in producing a result, so will that result be valued. Whether this custom be founded in right, it is not our province

*An Essay, read before the Lancaster County Teachers' Institute, November 18, 1861, by S. G. Boyd.

here to discuss. The fact, however, is manifest.

Science is the legitimate offspring and creature of the mind. The mind alone can grasp its facts. The mind only can assort and arrange them in proper order. Science, in its nature, is knowledge reduced to order, so as to be easily remembered, readily referred to, and advantageously applied. It is such a collection of facts bearing on any subject, as, when properly arranged and judiciously applied, will produce certain legitimate results, whose accuracy will depend on the degree of perfection to which the science has been brought, and the skill of the operator.

Webster defines a profession to be an occupation or calling not wholly mechanical. Whilst this does very well for a general definition, we are far from supposing that the term profession is not generally understood in a much higher sense,—having associated with it the idea of intellectual attainment beyond that possessed by mankind generally,—of professional skill, having for its basis and stamina a well-stored and cultivated mind. Such a definition, we think eminently proper, and such an one, practically applied, can alone save society from the injurious effects of quackery.

Now, do the duties devolving on the teacher require that he possess the qualifications necessary to entitle his occupation to the distinctive appellation of “learned profession”? We unhesitatingly affirm that they do. First, his intellectual attainments must be respectable, if he would give valuable instruction. If his acquirements are limited, his teaching must necessarily be so. We seriously doubt whether a teacher whose knowledge is confined to the text-books commonly used in our public schools, can teach them thoroughly. The more he knows of rhetoric, and the more varied his reading, the better can he teach reading and grammar.

To teach successfully arithmetic, even as far as it is now carried in our most common text-books on the subject, pre-supposes a knowledge of both geometry and algebra; and to make even geography interesting, the teacher should have some knowledge of zoölogy, botany and general history. Indeed, the more varied his knowledge, other things being equal, the more successful will he be as a teacher. But notwithstanding his literary attainments may be sufficient, he will yet fail, utterly fail in the school-room unless he possess that professional knowledge, that knowledge of his business, which enables him to see its aim and object, and that

professional skill which distinguishes it from every other occupation.

Whilst the number is now comparatively small who deny that a teacher's knowledge should be extensive and varied, there are yet many who practically affirm that special preparation, if not wholly unnecessary, is, at least, not essential. Many believe, that no system of pedagogics, however beautiful in theory, can be practically applied, on the ground that no children are exactly alike, and that there must be as many systems as there are children. Here, indeed, the battle rages most fiercely between the enemies and friends of the profession. On these grounds have the former endeavored to fortify themselves, and are making a last desperate stand against the onward march to an honorable position of this most essential calling in a well-organized community; and therefore against this point should be directed the united efforts of the great army of teachers and the friends of popular instruction. I will not attempt to conceal the fact, that here is, as yet, our weakest point, and although that point may be strengthened and rendered impregnable, from the very nature of the case the task is not easy.

The mind of man is exceedingly subtle. It is not always that we can trace the secret springs of thought. The teacher frequently cannot ascertain by what processes a pupil arrives at a conclusion. To add to the difficulty, different pupils resort to different expedients to enable them to grasp a new truth. Nor is the teacher more at a loss for a panacea in instructing than in governing his pupils. Indeed, in the governmental department the task is greater, since he has frequently to operate at great disadvantage, lacking, as he generally will, the assent and co-operation of the child. Nor will the child, in most instances, be merely passive. Frequently he will, from design, attempt to conceal his real thoughts, and will mislead his instructor in proportion as the deception is more or less adroitly practiced. Whilst candor compels us to say this much against the possibility of ever reducing pedagogics to a science, we feel it our duty to state a few of the points held by those who maintain the affirmative of the question.

If it is maintained that man is an intellectual and moral being;—that he has certain mental faculties, such as conception, memory and reason;—that he is endowed with the senses of seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling and feeling, through which he receives sensations from the external world, and perception by which he dis-

cerns the causes of those sensations;—that he is in possession of certain moral and selfish sentiments, such as hope, fear, self-esteem, veneration, and love of approbation. As children, then, nearly all possess the same mental and moral faculties, which differ, not in kind, but only in degree, it is evident that the same general plan of instruction and government may be pursued in all cases, modification being needed only in the minor details.

To illustrate: Since children have the senses before-mentioned, together with reason, memory, &c., the teacher can appeal to these in every case. If he should discover that any of these is defective, he, of course, must rely mainly on those that are more perfect. Yet, in every instance, may he use the same appliances to stimulate and develop the same powers. Nor need more difficulty arise in adopting a system for governing than instructing a school. A conscience, an innate sense of right and wrong, is implanted in the breast of every child. The principle that prompts to reciprocal affection is there. Self-esteem is there; love of approbation is there, as the last resort; and the teacher, when an unknown child enters the school-room, feels confident that it possesses all those in a greater or less degree. Is it possible, then, for the teacher to lay down a general plan for the government of his school? Is it possible for him to adopt such a system, based on a knowledge of the above-mentioned facts, as need not be departed from in any of its essential points? We think it is. To hold the contrary view, seems to require the admission, that the mental and moral powers of different men are different in kind as well as in degree; that, in reality, reason in one man is not reason in another; memory in one, not memory in another; and the sense of seeing in one is perhaps that of hearing, tasting or smelling in another, if not some new sense not yet defined.

Whilst we thus claim that it is possible to reduce teaching to a science, we are forced to admit that there still remains much to be done, in order to give to the profession a proper degree of public confidence, without which the mere empty title of learned profession will be of no conceivable value to any one. Unless the public, whose sentiment is all-powerful, practically acknowledge that the teacher should possess good literary and scientific attainments, that, in addition thereto, he must have special preparation in order to render him successful in his calling,—unless they admit this, and all this, vain,

vain will be our efforts to elevate the profession to its proper rank.

To effect so desirable an object, a comprehensive system of pedagogics must first be adopted. This system must be based on the philosophy of the human mind, just as the science of medicine is based on the science of the human body.

In order to give such a system truth and character, it should emanate from a council of the most profound philosophers and intelligent educators. It should at least be approved of and confidently recommended by them. For we may rest assured that so long as educators and teachers disagree among themselves, their theories will not be much respected by the public; so long as each college and normal school holds and promulgates a system of its own, and each teacher has a system of his own, no real progress can be made towards elevating the standard of the calling to that point we so much desire.

In the great work of elevating the teacher's profession to its proper place, the normal schools must take the lead. They are the medical colleges of the profession. In them the human mind is dissected, and all its parts and their properties and uses explained. Let them seek zealously after truth, and endeavor to harmonize their systems and blend them into one. They must be the great expounders of the human intellect. They are the fountains from which the profession must receive its water of life. They are the architects that must mould and fashion the teacher and prepare him fully for his duty. May they realize the magnitude of their work, and go forth to it with willing hands and pure, devoted hearts.

On the teacher devolves the duty of practically applying the systems and theories of the schools. In his hands must ever remain the fate of his profession. It is for him to lift it aloft, and place it where nature intended it to be, high amongst the most honored callings of man, even hard by the divine commission, or to trail it dishonored in the dust. As he loves his profession, or has any regard for its character, let him never give utterance to the idea that one teacher will fail when applying a system which had proved itself successful in the hands of another, on the ground that the system did not suit his nature, and that with some other system he could have been successful. Nothing will compel the public to underrate our calling more than such an acknowledgment as this from a teacher. They will at once believe that our

systems are legion, and finally conclude that we have nothing worthy of confidence or support.

Such a declaration moreover is not true and cannot be sustained. The more the teacher studies nature and investigates her laws,—the more he turns his attention to the metaphysical world and considers the working of the human mind, the more will he be convinced of the harmony that pervades the whole universe, and the fact that like causes produce like effects everywhere.

There is another class whose position requires a passing remark on this occasion. I refer to the people at large. They are the arbiters of our fate as teachers. They are those to whom we must submit our infant profession for adoption or rejection. And they are the ones who, most of all, are interested in its fate. They have, in days that are gone, sat in judgment and elevated worthy occupations to high and honorable position. Nor have they ever refused to do this when two points were clearly proven: First, that the calling was good and truthful in itself; and second, that the happiness and prosperity of the human race demanded its promotion.

My fellow-teachers, I, for one, am willing to submit the cause of our profession to these judges. True, they may seem tardy. It is ours to labor and to wait. Doubtless they are as prompt as when law and medicine stood knocking at their portal; and if the teachers are true to their trust and I mistake not the signs of the times, our cause will meet with a speedy and final triumph at their hands.

Therefore, let us not despair. True, our glorious institutions are assailed by traitors. True, fraternal war, like a dark cloud, hangs over our beloved country. True, the wise may yet be confounded and the courageous yet may falter. Let us, however, bear in mind that

O'er the darkest night of sorrow,
From the deadliest field of strife,
Dawns a dearer, brighter morrow.
Springs a truer, nobler life.

For the Schoolmaster.
Reformers in Grammar.

ONE is half reluctant to take up the pen to expose the faults of grammar. For so many men of all kinds have seen defects in grammar-books and have failed to remedy them, that further attempts in the same direction seem fruitless. A learned and accurate writer (Goold Brown) has, with great labor, compiled and written an admirable work on grammar, bringing to his labor, as he says in his preface, the

experience and practice of fifteen years devoted chiefly to grammatical studies and exercises. In a volume of more than a thousand pages, he brings together, under appropriate heads, an amount of matter directly tending towards the subject of grammar, that, to one unaccustomed to such serious and continuous labors, seems really stupendous. If any one really ever was in earnest, certainly the author of this work was truly so. Yet, with erudition, experience and labor, the book, to a common reader of it, seems, after all, to be only an enlarged compendium of the grammars now in common use. It is true that each branch of the science and each department of the art of grammar are abundantly illustrated and exemplified, but, after all, the gist of the matter, with exception of some very important improvements, such as to definitions and rules, lies within the usual text-books on the subject. There is nothing radically new. The grand plans of grammar are not changed. He himself says, in his preface, "I have hoped to facilitate the study of the English language, not by abridging our grammatical code, or by rejecting the common phraseology of its doctrines, but by extending the former, [our grammatical code] improving the latter [the phraseology] and establishing both, [code and phraseology] but still more, by furnishing new illustrations of the subject, and arranging its vast number of particulars in such order that every item may be readily found." If such a laborious and careful writer can arrive at a result like this, what warrant is there for any further attempts to remedy what are considered at the present day defects in our methods of teaching grammar? Add to this the long array of names inserted in the first part of this same work of Brown. With collateral works and authorities, the names or heads in the catalogue referred to, which display the names of grammarians, are four hundred and fifty-two; the grammars mentioned are four hundred and sixty-three in number. What an array of names! Truly, one need hardly hope to be successful who tries to make any reform in the science or to suggest any improvement in the art of grammar.

Among those who have attempted reforms, we mention first, such as abridge the science by dropping out parts they deem unessential. One gentleman quite recently published a work wherein the quality "case" was applied only to words that are inflected in declining. Second, are such as treat the several parts of speech as they occur in a very progressive man-

er by question, as, for instance, Smith, who proposes a set of questions to lead the pupil into an understanding of the application of terms. Third, are such as illustrate by oral exercises the use, the application and the significance of the terms employed. But these two last are mere skirmishers. They do not attack the main body of the science. They are reformers who do not penetrate to the root of the matter. The first is the only class radically right or wrong, and unfortunately their efforts at improvement are not received without suspicion.

There may be other kinds of reformers in grammar, such as those who institute improved methods of parsing; those who alter the nomenclature of the book, to make it more consistent with the use of the terms named, and perhaps these are not all. I would not speak of the efforts of any one of them disparagingly. They have done good service to the science; for investigation in any science brings to light facts and important theories. But greater needs are still felt by student and teacher. First, that the science be more intimately welded to language itself; next, also, that proficiency by constant practice be imparted to the learner in the expression of thought. To these must be added still another need—the study of grammar (a mere elementary pursuit) should be made to conform and to bend as much as possible to the future studies the scholar is destined to follow—its range should be brought within the limits proper to a preparation for the studies of logic and rhetoric.

HENRY CLARK.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Teacher's Reading.

THE editor of the department of Literature, prospecting in the region of his ramblings in which he is to make six brief reports during the year, finds himself perplexed. He who has only lingered on the threshold shall not act as if he knew the *penetralia*; and the possessor of ten facts shall not generalize for a thousand. Said editor, therefore, contracts the field of his operations, and, thus clearing up his perplexity, bounds this limited area as follows.

Assuming that each of his readers is actuated by a certain earnestness of desire to become as well read as possible in the very best books, he undertakes to communicate such results of his experience as shall seem to offer help or incentive for the attainment of this object. In this matter of literary culture, he will be so presuming as to take it for granted, that what has been

good for him will be good also for others. While this plan appears, in every respect, to be the most judicious, it is nevertheless open to the objection, that, presenting only the tastes and experience of one individual, it will lack that variety and many-sidedness which would otherwise add interest to the department. He therefore invites all teachers, of both sexes, who read THE SCHOOLMASTER, to send in notes of the most excellent or most beautiful discoveries which they make in the field of literature. Such communications, addressed to the editor of this department, will undergo a very mild ordeal, to test their worthiness to appear in print. If this plan is not too remote from practicability, it certainly presents a fair opportunity for a profitable interchange of ideas. We have ourselves very rarely *stumbled upon* a good book. Either some friend, or a reviewer whom we have come to trust, has guided us to the treasure. This occurrence has happened so rarely, that a single shelf of our book-case would still suffice to hold all the books which have ever done us any good. It would be a finer thing to increase this number than to plod through volumes for the sake of gaining knowledge.

We shall not recommend a systematic course of reading. A man likes to choose his wife, his pictures, his vacation journeys, without prescription. We have read with a shudder the lists of books which some weak writers have prepared to aid the development of the youthful mind. It is right for a child to prefer to chase butterflies rather than to moralize over an ant-hill; and, in like manner, we humor ourselves, esteeming that as proper for us which affords us delight. A man is at least as good as a magnet, which selects the particles of steel without their being labelled or recommended.

But this principle of natural choice alone will not avail. Friends can help and provoke. This assistance is even necessary. The child must be shown the meadow and be lifted over the fence; and the magnet must be brought near the steel. The mischief is when, instead of suggesting from our experience, we try to impose it as law on others. Thousands of good people debar themselves from the best of expansive influences, from an unreasoning respect for the advice of friends. These are the sluggish creatures, in whom the assimilative force is slight.

Every one who reads with a higher motive than to while away time or to gain information, must have frequently asked himself what book to read. Few people have tastes so decidedly

in favor of any one branch of science or of literature, as to be drawn irresistibly towards a definite book at every leisure hour. One must understand how to make a reasonable selection, or to put to himself a "leading question," as benignant teachers do to hesitating pupils, in order to draw himself out and ascertain his bent. An intelligent man, who has found a dozen congenial books, knows his own character and his needs so well, that he can hold the phrenologist and the clergyman, with all their assurance, in a little contempt. A book is a spiritual mirror, which reflects only its few kindred spirits.

From all we have just said of books we exclude those which belong to pure science, or to mechanical art. Books of ethics, philosophy, and of æsthetic subjects, have the liveliest influences on character. They relate to it most nearly. It is slight knowledge of a man that I gain from being told that he is an ardent botanist or astronomer. But if you assure me that he appreciates St. Augustine, or admires Timothy Titcomb, I can estimate him at once.

A man's nature is the law by which he shall select his books. This principle should always operate, though, as we have seen, it will, in practice, often prove inadequate.

One can resolve to read only the acknowledged best. Suppose you should devote the next year to Homer, Dante and Shakespeare, and let the recent literature pass. Perhaps it is not essential to read the last novel and to keep pace with the monthlies. The books which have not grown old with the centuries are good for the present generation to use, as well as to adore. Will you defer reading "Hamlet," that you may read "Festus" this evening; or put off "Paradise Lost" for "Aurora Leigh"? The best way, of course, is to read both. But life is too short to allow us to bestow such extravagant compliments on the whole host of authors, as to give each a portion of our time.

With this principle of seeking the works of classic value must be reconciled, in some way, the quite other principle of studying one's own time in its productions. A neglect of the recent literature would shut one out of the body of intelligent men. The latest works of history help a man to locate himself, give him a *point d'appui*, whence he can exert his force. The last novels reflect our own society, very interesting pictures. The moral essays, as of Emerson and Helps, embody the workings of ethical speculation, the newest phases of what is so venerable *in Plato and the Apostles*.

Our periodical literature must receive some attention, independently of the interest, which, in times of public excitement, pertains to the newspaper. There is always an article or two in the "*Atlantic*" that makes the magazine worth carrying home. Mr. Beecher preaches to a small audience from his pulpit, and to an immense one through the "*Independent*." This species of literature is becoming more and more important. The number of men who devote their lives to scholarly pursuits is proportionally diminishing. But a taste for reading is becoming more general. The great body of readers at present consists of persons whose days are mostly occupied in toil, and who find only an occasional hour for recreation. Hence a sort of reading, requiring no great mental application, and cast into short chapters, comes into vogue. The best writers now use the periodical for the communication of their ideas. This contemporary thought has a personal interest. We have seen and heard the men. It is a great step in advance, thus to transfer the power of the pulpit to the press. It is not the worthless sermon that is put into the "*New York Ledger*," and so sent to its hundreds of thousands of readers, but the genuine production of good brains, such as have startled respectable people by their easy assent to Mr. Bonner's proposals. Unless your minister be a man of rare presence, it is very foolish to go and hear him every week, when, for a trifle of money, you can buy the eloquent sermon with which Mr. A. or Mr. B. is now reaching the popular mind.

These indications point in different directions, as it is meant they should. We established the unity of our principles at the outset. Cut off from all literature, ancient and modern, classic and ephemeral, whatever does not properly belong to you, and your task assumes comprehensible proportions. It is necessary to ignore immense quantities of reading. The height of folly is to read for the sake of having read. These long rows of books in the libraries probably concern you no more than do the Mountains of the Moon. Your business with books is to find the precious dozen or less that are worth your reverence.

T.

JOHN FREDERICK, Elector of Saxony, held prisoner by order of the Emperor, Charles V., when his books were taken from him, said: "You may take the books; but that which I have learned from them you can never take, or even tear from my heart."

in the Providence Evening Press, May 15th.

High School Reunion.

annual reunion of the Providence High Association was held in the First Light y Armory last evening, and was a brilliant affair. The festive company was large, the hall resounded with gaiety, and was all up with beauty. There was a zest and ease about the celebration which showed the true spirit of the occasion was recognized and that the Association had realized the which its founders had in view — that of being alive in its members the memory of the days which they had once spent in academies. The good judgment which prevailed over all the arrangements of the evening where more conspicuous than in the selection of speakers. The guests were gratefully welcomed by the President of the association, Mr. Wm. W. Hoppin, Jr., who introduced Sumner U. Shearman, Esq. Sentiments expressed by this gentleman were nicely adapted to accord with the feelings evoked by the hour, and beautifully recalled the memories of years when pleasure was not unalloyed and life was free from restlessness and care.

Wm. D. Hilton followed in a highly appropriate address, in which he paid a tribute to the memory of two classmates who had fallen in the battles of Belmont and Pittsburg.

The reading of an original poem, written for the occasion by Hon. William M. Rodman, added to the literary enjoyment of the feast. The genial spirit of this effusion, and the manner in which it gave expression to the inspiration of the scene, our readers shall

our command I bring a rhyme,
 'tis your glad reunion time,
 why you ask a song from me,
 the next truth I cannot see.
 I was taught by classic rule,
 the academic path to school! —
 it remote, far distant age,
 my was deemed almost a sage,
 the mind could cope with Murray's page, —
 he who conquer'd Rule of Three,
 stamp'd at once a prodigy.
 the mar of Greek and Latin then,
 remblingly approached by men,
 if a man spoke Homer's name,
 rather a word of Tully's fame,
 boys would open their wondering eyes,
 look around in wild surprise,

And act like Goldsmith's village throng,
 When their old teacher passed along,
 At sight of whom their wonder grew,
 "That one small head could carry all he knew."
 And yet those days were days of joy,
 Blend, like all life, with grief's alloy.
 We little thought of scenes like this,
 So full of school's remember'd bliss;
 We little thought of classic themes,
 Of storied bowers and Delphic dreams.
 We toy'd with balls and tops and kites,
 We never climb'd Parnassian heights;
 Our joys from home-born sources grew,
 Our feet were wet with common dew, —
 We nothing knew of nymphs-rapp'd mountains,
 Of academic groves and fountains.
 We knew the health which frolic yields
 Abroad in nature's open fields,
 And thus untrammell'd, wild and free,
 We learned our humble A, B, C.
 And having learned to cypher then,
 To make a good old-fashioned pen,
 And with that pen had learned to write
 In fair round letters, smooth and bright,
 And out of Alden true and well
 We then had learned to rightly spell.
 Our mental work was counted done;
 Life's tug and tattle then begun!
 And work we did, from sun to sun.
 How well I learn'd the sunrise-hour!
 It came when sleep in all its power
 To childhood came with sweetest rest,
 And close the eyelids gently press'd,
 And fancy, young in rainbow'd dreams,
 Sweet wander'd wild by flower-deck'd streams,
 And when all wet with crystal dew
 Life's thornless flowers around me grew.
 But, stern, cold life claimed childhood's toil,
 And mid its clang and rude turmoil
 Forth to my daily task I went,
 With prayerful heart to be content.
 Not such your path; your boyhood hours
 Were deck'd with academic flowers;
 Your way with gems of thought were strewn,
 Green-spreading boughs o'er you were thrown;
 You lingered 'neath their grateful shade,
 Where glinting sunbeams dancing 'rayed
 Your school-life path with all the joy
 Which earth ere yields to girl or boy.

You meet of by-gone years to tell,
 To ring the chimes on memory's bell,
 To chant the songs of school-boy days,
 Recount its sports, tell o'er its plays;
 To deck young manhood's early dawn
 With flow'rets pluck'd in boyhood's morn,
 To link once more life's broken chain,
 And meet as schoolmates once again.
 One is not here; he sleeps at rest
 With all a nation's sorrow blest,
 And we a sighing requiem swell

Around the grave where Comstock fell.

Why stand I here in manhood's years,
From sorrow's path of blight and tears,
Why at this festal greeting stand
With flowers all blighted in my hand?
You, flattering, say, though age is cold,
True manhood's heart can ne'er grow old,
And ever welcome is the tongue
Which tells a soul still warm and young.
I thank you from my heart of hearts,
If words of mine a joy imparts —
If you through these my vesper rhymes
Can catch the notes of matin chimes.

How bright, how joyous is this hour;
How full of life's exultant power;
Your paths are all ascending slopes,
Rainbow'd and crown'd with buoyant hopes.
Fame lifts aloft her laurel wreaths,
Joy with glad tones her anthem breathes;
Aye, all which mind or heart inspires,
Here wake to life their altar fires —
All is before, all clothed with light,
Cloudless your noon, star-gem'd your night;
Æolian airs sing through your hours,
By zephyrs wing'd on breath of flowers;
Meandering streams around you wind,
Margin'd with green, by tendrils twined;
And as their waters glide along,
They babbling plash a playful song;
Each pebble there an opal gleams,
And ripples flash with primy beams,
Your morning light with gold is ray'd,
And iris hues your sunset shade.
Aye, all is joy from morn 'till even,
And calm as childhood's dream of heaven.

Advancing years will bring their cares,
But scenes like these the heart prepares
For all the darker shades of life,
And arm the soul for every strife.
Clasp, then, once more, each comrade's hand,
While here united now you stand,
And pledge that until life shall end
Each shall in each salute a friend,
And as advancing years increase
Here bring in love the fruits of peace,
And garlands twine from friendship's bowers
To fragrance shed round sunset hours.

Then when earth's dawns and sunsets cease,
On you shall break the dawn of peace;
And round your bright supernal way
Beams of seraphic light shall play;
And if we grace celestial share,
The Saviour's smile will greet us there;
While angel choirs, around, above,
Shall chant reënon songs of love.

MANY institutions are properly called *seminaries*, for they do not half teach anything,

Anagrams.

ANAGRAMS are formed by the transposition of the letters of words or sentences or names of persons, so as to produce a word or sentence of pertinent or widely different meaning. This may be converted into a highly interesting game for a social circle. A large number of letters of the alphabet should be procured, and when the word is selected should be transposed by the company. For instance, let the word be *Astronomers*. These letters rightly placed will make — No more stars. *Immediately* — I met my Delia. *Catalogue* — Got a clue. *Elegant* — Neat leg. *Old England* — Golden land. *Parishioners* — I hire parsons. *Parliament* — Partial men. *Revolution* — To love ruin. *Penitentiary* — Nay, I repent. *Midshipman* — Mind his map. *Matrimony* — Into my arm. *Sweetheart* — There we sat. *Presbyterian* — Best in prayer. *Telegraphs* — Great helps.

LETTERS.—Nearly half of the dead letters last year were directed to the wrong office. Nearly one third had no postage stamps, when every one knows, or ought to know, that a stamp is absolutely necessary to secure the transmission of a letter. Only about one letter in thirty-six, of all that went to the dead letter office, failed on account of any fault of the department, to reach its destination. A great many persons neglect to add the name of the State to that of the town, when towns of the same name exist in several States. It is better, too, not to trust to the abbreviation of the name of a State, where other abbreviations resemble it. Me. for Maine, and Mo. for Missouri, for instance, are likely to be confounded, especially as people generally write so much more indistinctly than our fathers did.

LL. D.—This abbreviation should be written without a period between the two LL.'s. There has been a controversy as to its proper interpretation. Some regard it as an abbreviation of the Latin *Legis Legumque Doctor*, translated, Doctor of the Law and Laws, having reference to the fact that the Civil Law is spoken of in the singular number, while the Statute Laws are spoken in the plural,— meaning, then, Doctor of the Civil Law and Statute Laws. A recent writer in the *N. Y. Observer* very positively affirms that it is to be interpreted Doctor of the Civil and the Canon Law, and that this is the signification attached to it in the English Universities, and by all the scholars abroad.

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. CADY, WARREN.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Peep into the Dock.—No. 5.

AMONG the denizens of the dock the Medusae, jelly-fishes, are by no means the least interesting. These belong to the Radiates, which constitute the fourth or lowest of the four departments to which the animal kingdom has been divided; and form a distinct class, bearing the name *Acalephs*, from the smarting sensation which several varieties are capable of producing when handled. The name of the department or grand division to which they belong is derived from the peculiarity of their structure, which, according to Prof. Agassiz, is expressed by the single word *Radiation*. He says: "In radiates we have no prominent bilateral symmetry, as in all other animals, but an l-sided symmetry, in which there is no right and left, no anterior or posterior extremity, no above and below. They are spheroidal bodies; yet, though many of them remind us of a sphere, they are by no means to be compared to a mathematical sphere, but rather to an organic sphere so loaded with life, as it were, as to produce an infinite variety of radiate symmetry. The whole organization arranged around a centre toward which all the parts converge, or, in a reverse sense, from which the parts radiate."

Of the Acalephae, which is one of the three classes into which the Radiates are divided, there are three characteristic divisions distinguished by their shape, viz.: the "bell-shaped, the ribbed and the tubular." They exist in all seas and in every climate, and exhibit an almost endless variety of form and species. They are all, however, characterized by one numerical peculiarity: the parts of which they are composed, and which radiate from the centre, always consist of some multiple of four. My attention was particularly drawn to these curious creatures during the earlier days of April. I had just dipped a pail of water from the familiar dock, close by the steps of the bathing-house, and the sunlight shone into it I discovered some little transparent shapes of almost inconceivable delicacy, moving gracefully through the water by a succession of rather sudden impulses. This led me to examine them more narrowly. On introducing some of them into a glass jar partly filled with water I was delighted with the symmetry of their mechanism and the delicacy of their structure. They were scarcely more than a quarter of an inch in diameter, and appeared to consist of two crystalline portions shaped almost precisely like the bell-glasses which are used with the air-ump, and placed one within the other with a small space between them. Between these two

bells two filamentous cords passed in a longitudinal direction, and crossing each other at right angles at the top of the inner bell, they proceeded downward to the rim, where the two bells seemed to unite; and there, swelling out into little rounded nuclei, they extended onward, floating behind the animal in its progress through the water, in the form of slender threads. These it could lengthen or contract at pleasure. Another variety of nearly the same diameter, and having the form of the common wire-cloth dish-cover, was furnished with from eight to sixteen or more of the rounded nuclei, along the rim, from which the filaments extended so as to form a thin, delicate fringe. The little creatures made their way with considerable rapidity through the water by sudden contractions, which, forcing the water from their interior, carried them forward by reaction. When taken from the water they were scarcely visible.

I had now become interested in my observations and made daily visits to the dock in search of something new. My search was not in vain. It was but two or three days before I discovered a still more interesting species of the same class. This was what Dr. Hartwig, in his elegant volume upon "The Sea and its Living Wonders," calls the "elegant *Cydidippe infundibulum*"; and which he represents as appearing, during the summer season, in countless multitudes on the coast of England. Though not, probably, ever rare in Narraganset bay, it does not appear, as I am inclined to think, at any time, in numbers which can be called immense; nor is it found continuously from the time of its first appearance during the entire summer. They appeared, the present season, as already indicated, near the first of April, and continued, for about three weeks, to be found in moderate numbers floating upon or near the surface of the water in the bay and along the wharves, and then almost entirely disappeared. I have scarcely seen a specimen since the last week of April. Whether they have withdrawn to deeper water or have ceased for the season, I am unable to say. I incline, however, to the opinion that their appearance, in any considerable numbers, is periodical; that they perish very quickly after coming to maturity, and that from one spring to another they will rarely be found. It is somewhat remarkable that, perhaps, a majority of those persons who have passed their lives upon the borders of Narraganset are ignorant of the existence of these beautiful and interesting little visitors to our shores. To such, at least, a description of their structure will not be entirely without interest.

Let the reader imagine that he has, in a glass jar before him, filled with bright, clear sea-water, from one to half a dozen little musk-melons, from half an inch to an inch in diameter, formed of transparent pearl and floating gracefully about at will, and he will have a tolerably correct conception of the general appearance of the *Cydidippe*.

Eight longitudinal ribs divide its surface into the same number of equal segments. These ribs are furnished, throughout their entire length, with a series of short, flat cilia, which serve as paddles, and are kept in incessant motion. They are set very close together and overlap each other like shingles. They have a pearly lustre, and in the sunlight exhibit iridescent colors. When the little animal is at rest, these paddles vibrate but slowly, like the fins of many species of fish. When the motion is accelerated, the *Cydippe* is carried gracefully forward with greater or less rapidity. When it wishes to change its course, it retards the motion of the paddles upon one side, as a boatman would use his oars. These ribs, which are of a slightly darker shade of color than the rest of the animal, and the paddles with which they are furnished, are possessed of an independent vitality, which is shown by the fact that when one of the creatures is going to dissolution, so that scarcely more than a portion of a rib with a few of its paddles remains, these will continue their vibrations.

From the lower portion of the body of these little creatures emerge two tentacles, at equal distances from each other upon each side, which can be extended to the length of five or six inches, or can be wholly withdrawn into sheaths situated in the body of the animal for their reception. These are the prehensile organs with which the animal secures its food. They are furnished upon one side with slender, secondary filaments, which roll together spirally when the main tentacle is withdrawn, and disappear together with it within the body. These filaments are provided with suckers by means of which, when the tentacles are extended, the animal secures its food. When the tentacles and filaments are all expanded, one could scarcely believe they could be contracted into so small a compass and be made almost wholly to disappear, without being an eye-witness of the fact.

I have expressed the opinion that these elegant little creatures perish very quickly. This is the result of my own observation. With the best care that I could exercise I was scarcely able to preserve them for more than twenty-four or forty-eight hours: and not unfrequently those which I secured with a dip-net just before night-fall would half of them be ready to dissolve, with a moderate agitation of the jar in which they were placed, the next morning. If they could be preserved they would constitute some of the most interesting objects for the aquarium; but unless others can be more successful than I have been, they will be obliged to forego the pleasure of anything more than a very limited acquaintance with these interesting little fairies which twirl the mazy dance for their own brief hour upon the ever restless bosom of the sea. In fact, they seem scarce more than drops of water arrayed in beauty and instinct for the time, with the elements of organic, sentient existence. Plump and rounded as they are when

taken from the water in their prime, if left exposed to the air, they soon dissolve into vapor, and leave scarce a trace behind. "*Sic transit gloria mundi.*"

A larger variety of the bell-shaped jelly-fishes is familiar to all who frequent the shores of our bay, at almost any time of the year. They are often left upon the beach by the receding tide, and to the casual observer, are rather objects of disgust than of interest. They are, however, well deserving of examination. The mechanism by which they secure their prey, digest their food and accomplish their locomotion is curious and quite complicated. It is wonderful with what facility they elongate any of their multitude of tentacles from a length of only two or three inches to that of more than a foot, in their search for food. When they are swimming the movements of their tentacles is constant, some stretching out to a fine thread-like tenuity and others thickening their dimensions as they are contracted toward the complex muscular and nervous centre.

One remarkable fact respecting these creatures, and that from which the class derives the name *Acalephae*, is the power which they possess of producing a stinging sensation when handled, and of paralyzing small animals which are so unfortunate as to come within their reach. Of this last I recently witnessed a conclusive instance. I had placed one of the creatures for examinations in an aquarium, which I was just preparing for the reception of its tenants, and left it there while I went to capture some minnows. On returning, I introduced several minnows into the aquarium, and as the jelly-fish happened to be on the side of the tank nearest to me, I naturally dropped them so that they came in contact with some of the tentacles, when they would dart away in extreme terror, throw themselves into all possible contortions, whirl round and roll over with great rapidity for a few seconds and then appear to be wholly paralyzed. One good-sized minnow became so entangled in the net-work of tentacles as to be unable to escape, and although immediately removed to a vessel of pure sea water, it never recovered. The shock was so violent as to produce immediate death. I could then understand the stories of the boys respecting the smarting produced by throwing these creatures at each other, in sport, while bathing. And yet these animals, which are said sometimes to attain a weight of thirty pounds, with all their power, when left by the tide upon the shore are soon so absorbed by its sands and dissipated in vapor as to leave behind them only a slight spot of varnish.

I. F. C.

THE strengthening and invigorating effect of bitters is well known, and has led to the introduction of the "bitter cup," as a tonic for the body. There is also a bitter cup of affliction, which God gives us as a tonic for the soul.

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

Questions Recently Submitted to the Candidates for Admission to the Providence High School.

WRITTEN ARITHMETIC.

1. Divide $\frac{4\frac{1}{2}}{36}$ of $\frac{34}{.07}$ by $\frac{.004}{34\frac{1}{2}}$ of $\frac{24}{.0427}$.
2. During a shower of rain $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches of rain fell. How many hhd. (63 gallons each) fell on $\frac{1}{2}$ of an acre of level surface?
3. Twenty per cent. of three-fifths of a certain number is what per cent. of three-fourths of the same number?
4. Bought a horse for \$200. What shall I ask for him that I may take 15 per cent. less than I asked and yet make 20 per cent.?
5. A merchant paid \$2500 for cotton and sold it without delay at 10 per cent. advance. He invested the proceeds in prints, which he sold at a loss of 10 per cent. Did he gain or lose by the transaction, and how much?
6. A capitalist sent a broker \$5000 to invest in cotton, after deducting his commission of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. How many lbs. of cotton could he buy at 20 cents a lb.?
7. A merchant sold $\frac{1}{2}$ of his goods at an advance of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; one-fifth at an advance of 8 per cent.; and one-tenth at a loss of 15 per cent. At what per cent. of the cost must the remainder be sold in order to gain 10 per cent. on the whole?
8. A grocer bought a hhd. of molasses containing 140 gallons, for \$36, but a part of it having leaked out, he sold the remainder for $33\frac{1}{2}$ cents a gallon and lost 5 per cent. How many gallons leaked out?
9. A's money is to B's as 3 to 5; but after A had spent \$49 and B \$95, A's money is to B's as 5 to 7. What had each at first?
10. Required to lay out a garden in the form of a rectangle which shall contain $1\frac{1}{2}$ acres so that its breadth shall be to its length as 3 to 4. What must be its length and breadth, and the diagonal distance between its opposite corners?

MENTAL ARITHMETIC.

N. B. State the reasoning process clearly in as few words as possible.

1. A watch and chain cost \$200. The watch cost \$20 more than twice the cost of the chain. What was the cost of each?
2. A boy being asked the time of day answered that $\frac{1}{2}$ of 2-5 of the time past noon was equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ of 3-5 of the time to midnight. Required the time.
3. A piece of cloth, before being sponged, was four-fifths of a yard wide, and after being sponged

was but $\frac{2}{3}$ of a yard wide. What per cent. did it lose in shrinking?

4. A, B and C can do one-fifth of a job of work in 4 days. A and B can do $\frac{1}{2}$ of it in 5 days. A and C can do one-fifth of it in 6 days. In how many days would each do it?

5. If a merchant sells flour at \$6 a barrel and gains 20 per cent., how must he sell it a barrel to lose 25 per cent.?

6. A spent one-fifth of his money, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of the remainder, and then gave \$10 more than $\frac{1}{2}$ of what he had at first, when he found he had but \$80. How much had he at first?

7. The head of a fish is one-seventh of its entire length, its body is three-fifths of its entire length, and its tail is four inches longer than its head. What is the length of the fish?

8. If, from three times a certain number we subtract two-thirds of the number, five-sixths of the number and twenty-five, the remainder will be ten less than the first number. What is the number?

9. A boy has a certain number of pencils, which, if he should sell at the rate of $\frac{3}{4}$ of a cent apiece, he would lose 6 cents, but if he should sell them at five-sixths of a cent apiece, he would gain 6 cts. How many pencils had he?

10. A boy bought an apple, an orange and a peach for 12 cents. The orange cost three times the difference of the price of the apple and the peach, and the apple cost one-fifth of the sum of the price of the peach and the orange. What was the cost of each?

GRAMMAR.

1. Write the plural of *cargo*, *folio*, *palmetto*, and the letters *a* and *h*.
2. Write the possessive plural of *show-man*, *Mussul-man* and *child*.
3. Give the principal parts of the following words: *cite*, *break*, *chide*, *clothe*, *drink*, *lie*, (to recline,) *lay*, *sit*.
4. Analyze the following sentences and parse the words in italics: I am resolved *what* to do. All *mine* is *thine*.
5. I did not know of *his* being a *traitor*. For an idler to be a good scholar *is* impossible.
6. Call imperfection *what* thou fanciest such.
7. Be so kind as to *oblige* me. My friend has gone *home*. He has studied well until *now*.
8. Correct the errors and parse the words in italics in the following sentences: Every boy and every girl *were* studying. I intended to have *come*. Who did you see?
9. The horse and chaise *are* in *their* place.
10. It may have been *her*. I never thought of its being *him*.

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Give the boundaries of Georgia, Louisiana and South Carolina, and the Capitals of each.
2. Name ten of the largest cities in the Southern and Middle States, and describe their location.

3. Through what bodies of water must one pass in going in a steamer from Cincinnati to St. Petersburg?

4. Name the political divisions of Europe, and give the Capital of each.

5. Give the Latitude and Longitude of Providence, New York, Washington, New Orleans, Havana, Paris, London, Rome, St. Petersburg, Vienna and Constantinople.

6. Name the principal lakes, rivers and mountains in Africa, and describe the rivers.

7. Describe six of the largest rivers in South America.

8. Name the bays, rivers and mountains in Asia.

9. Name the principal ranges of Mountains in Europe.

10. Name the principal places where wheat, cotton, sugar and rice are produced.

HISTORY.

1. Give an account of the settlement of Maryland.

2. Give an account of the settlement of Pennsylvania.

3. Name the principal events of 1775, and give an account of the battle of Bunker Hill.

4. Describe the Stamp Act.

5. Name the principal events of 1776, and describe the battle of White Plains.

6. Give the principal events in 1777, and give an account of the surrender of Burgoyne.

7. Describe the battle of Monmouth and the massacre of Wyoming.

8. Give an account of the treachery of Arnold and the death of Andre.

9. Name the principal events of 1781, and give an account of the siege of Yorktown and the surrender of Lord Cornwallis.

10. Give an account of the life of Gen. Greene.

SPELLING.

Piercing, physician, siege, feud, hypocrisy, pleurisy, impressible, impossible, excrescence, eviscerate, irascible, scythe, effervescence, scissure, avalanche, parachute, zoophyte, zephyr, colleague, colloquy, rarely, clarify, iterate, litigate, aqueduct, equipage, liquefy, liquable, reminiscence, callous, sieve, revenue, negotiate, associate, ingratiate, insatiate, social, martial, glacial, scintillate, fallacious, spacious, aqueous, dubious, osseous, serious, terrify, pommel, superficies, anchorite.

WHEN we have practiced good actions awhile, they become easy; and when they are easy, we begin to take pleasure in them; and when they please us we do them frequently; and by frequency of acts they grow into a habit.

You are unfaithful to your soul if you enfeeble its servant, the body; you are more unfaithful to it still if you enslave it to its servant.

Editors' Department.

Object-Teaching.

CONCERNING this system of training the youth of the primary schools there is at present in this country, as well as in various portions of the European continent, much interest. If we rightly conceive the meaning of "object-teaching," it is, that the pupil may secure *ideas* through the most natural channels. The senses, the observation, the eye, the ear, the hands, the feet, the nose, should all lend a helping hand to the collection of intellectual knowledge. On this subject the Superintendent of Public Schools in Connecticut thus speaks in his annual report:

"In the whole range of school instruction in this State, there is perhaps no place where there is so much need of change, and where improvements can be more effective than in primary schools and classes. The primary school-room should be made cheerful and pleasant, the seats should be convenient for the children and suited to their age and size, and all the surroundings should be such as will help to cultivate habits of neatness, a taste for the beautiful and a love for the true and the good.

"The legitimate arts of amusing and interesting by means of objects, pictures and conversation, should be skillfully employed. The various emotions called out by the presence of new faces and strange objects are to be wisely guided till the primary school-room becomes an attractive place to the child, and the chasm between the home and the little world of the school-room is successfully bridged; and then should the special work of school instruction commence, by giving the children simple, familiar illustrations from objects about them. Color, form, weight, number and locality, in succession, alternating and combined, should receive special attention. The school-room should be furnished with blocks of different forms and sizes, the geometrical solids, diagrams, counters, cards and blackboards, and with specimens of minerals, rocks, and pictures of flowers and animals. With the blocks and diagrams the pupils would be able to obtain accurate ideas of form and size, and by applying them to surfaces and solids learn how to measure and compare different objects. They should be taught the exact length of an inch, a foot, a yard, &c., by visible illustration with an object before them. The primary, secondary and tertiary colors, tints and shades, and harmony of color can properly be taught in the primary school. The first lessons in number should be given with objects, such as beans, counters or marbles, and the children taught the relative value of numbers with these objects before them.

"The names of common plants, their form, color and parts, and to some extent, their qualities

and use may be better taught in the primary school than after the child leaves it. The mineral and animal kingdom with their varied treasures and objects of interest would furnish an inexhaustible supply of subjects for lessons, all interesting and useful. The whole book of nature is spread open for the child and for the teacher, with almost an infinite variety of objects, which, in some of their forms, are accessible to every teacher without cost. The child in the primary school is capable of observing these objects, of noting their peculiarities and relations, and of learning many useful lessons about them.

"By means of these exercises the perceptive faculties are developed, and the habits of attention and observation formed. These faculties can be cultivated at no other time so well as in childhood; and if properly trained then, they become important auxiliaries in all future culture and acquisition."

The Acting Superintendent of the State of New York, Emerson W. Keyes, Esq., in his last annual report, thus speaks of object-teaching:

"Educators and intelligent friends of education have long felt that our methods of instruction signally failed in producing salutary effects upon the minds of young children. A growing conviction has taken possession of thinking and observing minds, that what the great mass of our people require, is less a knowledge of facts from books than the power to use books intelligently, in connection with all other means and sources of information. * * * It was left for the distinguished educator and philosopher, Pestalozzi, to originate and to develop to some extent a system of primary instruction more in harmony with nature and the laws of mind.

"This system, now more commonly known as 'object-teaching,' and for many years successfully practiced in the best schools of England and the continent, proceeds upon the rational assumption that the senses, the observing powers, are those through which the child chiefly and naturally gains a notion of things; that is, obtains information, knowledge, *ideas*. The reasoning and reflective powers are latent in the mind of the young child, and are not brought into exercise until later in life, when its stock of ideas, its knowledge of things, and its powers of apprehension are so far complete as to require the use of these higher intellectual agencies in conducting the further investigations of the soul in the domain of ALL TRUTH. To address these faculties, therefore, at an early age of the pupil's progress, is productive of unfortunate results, chiefly in one or two ways. In a child of naturally quick apprehension, these powers become unduly excited and stimulated; one of slower apprehension becomes stolid and indifferent, discouraged by want of success, and disheartened by the sense of disgrace to which his backwardness exposes him."

Newton Bateman, Esq., Superintendent of Public Instruction in the State of Illinois, thus speaks of object-teaching:

"The fundamental error lies in ignorance or false views of the laws of mental growth and development. The *senses* are the pioneers of all knowledge. The dawn and activity of the perceptive powers are always antecedent to those of the reflective. The eye is the child's first teacher—the ear the next. And for several years, the chief work of education is to cultivate these organs. The child in its first gaze upon the strange new world into which it has entered, meets an 'object-lesson'—and long before the tongue has learned to lip the simplest forms of speech, the eye has traced the outlines of a thousand objects, and reveled in the beauty of their ever-varying forms and colors.

"Instead of trying to make philosophers of children, which is impossible, we should seek to make accurate observers of them, which is possible, and the foundation of all true philosophy. Instead of trying to force them to a knowledge of the intellectual world, through books and dissertations and brain-work, we should lead them forth into the magnificence of the material world, through the senses. Instead of bidding them open their minds to receive the wisdom of man through the dry dogmas of abstract science, we should simply bid them open their eyes and ears, and let the wisdom of God flow in through the omnipresent beauty of the grass-clad earth and glory-tinted skies. Instead of bending the mind and soul and body of the child to a preconceived theory of education, only to accomplish a result more sad than ignorance itself, we should simply follow the path indicated by the finger of God as the immutable course of all mental development.

"Object-lessons," as they are termed, form an important part of this improved method of primary teaching."

Teachers' Association.

MR. EDITOR:—The Teachers' Association of South Kingstown held a meeting at Peacedale, in Hazard's elegant and nicely-furnished hall, on Friday evening, May 9th, the President, J. H. Tefft, in the chair. Mr. P. C. Sears was appointed Secretary *pro tem*.

The President announced the objects of the meeting, and urged a prompt discussion of the question, "How can the interest in the public schools be increased?"

It was discussed by Messrs. T. T. Tucker, P. C. Sears and J. H. Tefft. Mr. J. J. Ladd, of Providence, advocated THE R. I. SCHOOLMASTER as a means of increasing the interest, and urged the teachers to support that journal by subscribing for it.

Messrs. J. H. Tefft, P. C. Sears and J. Hall

were appointed a committee to make arrangements for the next meeting.

Mr. J. J. Ladd was introduced as the lecturer for the evening. He said that he did not propose to give a lecture, but to talk familiarly with the teachers on the question they had been discussing. By an apt illustration and pointed remark, he showed the teacher his responsibility. After referring to the general complaint that the children were not interested in the schools, he described the conduct of an interested scholar, both in and away from the school, then turning to the uninterested scholar he drew a striking contrast. He said that a teacher must understand and govern himself before he could govern others. He must learn to govern by close observation. A teacher must be punctual, keep his promises, teach common sense with the studies, and encourage the children to try.

A vote of thanks was presented to Mr. Ladd for his interesting lecture; also to Messrs. Hazard for the use of hall. The Association then adjourned.

SECRETARY PRO TEM.

—Narragansett Times.

Contributions.

THE following contributions have been received in compliance with a resolution passed at a recent meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, held at Carolina Mills, for the relief of the sick and wounded soldiers:

Previously reported,.....	\$26 41
Mr. G. M. Bently, Pub. School, Hopkinton,	40
Miss S. M. Lillibridge, Public School, Richmond	16
Mr. A. A. Lillibridge.....do.....do.....	22
F. B. Snow, Bridgham School, Providence.	6 13
M. A. Maynard, Dist. No. 2, Burrillville....	25
George W. Spalding, Natick,.....	1 84
Miss Kate Pendleton, No. 11, Watch Hill, Westerly.....	60
F. B. Smith, Valley Falls, Dist. No. 33....	3 75
Second Primary, Elmwood.....	50
H. H. Gorton, Dist. No. 15, Warwick,....	51
Miss E. A. Pierce, Summer Street Intermediate, Providence.....	1 51
W. H. Gifford, Middletown, Dist. No. 3,....	1 25
D. R. Adams, Public School, Centreville....	85
A Primary School, Providence,.....	1 52
W. C. Peckham, No. 11, Burrillville.....	36
Miss S. J. Bates, Primary, No. 11, do.....	36
Miss E. P. Cunliffe, Dist. No. 1, Warwick.	1 00
East District, Warren,.....	28
H. M. Rice, High School, Woonsocket....	75
Perley Verry, Grammar School, do.....	82
Miss A. Peck, Intermediate do.....do.....	57
Miss B. J. Brown, Primary do.....do.....	38
Miss E. Paine,.....do.....do.....do.....	40
Miss M. R. Brown,.....do.....do.....do.....	35
Miss Lucy Smith,.....do.....do.....do.....	73

N. W. DeMunn, Principal Benefit Street Grammar School, Providence,.....	3 06
Mary W. Armington, Graham Street Intermediate School, Providence,	1 12
Mary E. Anthony, Benefit Street Intermediate School, (one room,) Providence, ..	50
Lizzie A. Davis and Susan R. Joslyn, Benefit Street Primary School, Providence, ..	63
J. H. Arnold, Portsmouth, District No. 5..	5 00
William L. Chace, Chepachet.....	2 00
Miss Fanny Padelford, Elmwood Primary, ..	50
Mr. H. H. Brown, Gloucester.....	15
Intermediate and Primary, Hammond St., Providence,	3 25
Miss Mary E. Barber, Kingstown,.....	13
Mr. J. H. Tefft, Kingstown,.....	50
Miss Mary M. Shelley, Primary, Ring St., Providence.....	62
Miss Maria Essex, Primary, Potter's Avenue, Providence	1 00
Miss Elizabeth Helme, Primary, Walling Street, Providence,.....	1 00
Miss Elizabeth B. Carpenter, Intermediate, Walling Street, Providence,.....	1 75
Mr. I. F. Cady, High School, Warren,....	3 12
Misses H. P. Martin and G. Buffinton, Primary, Warren,.....	1 03
Miss Davol's Private School, Warren.....	50
Miss A. W. Jackson, Primary, Summer St., Providence.....	1 80
Nathan B. Lewis, Richmond.....	25
Henry B. Kenyon, Arcadia,.....	45
Miss S. J. Williams, Fountain Street Grammar School, Providence.....	42
Caroline W. James, Hopkins School, North Providence.....	1 50
J. B. Spencer, District No. 9, Warwick,...	1 00
Miss Lydia C. Armstrong, Chepachet.....	1 00
Mr. T. T. Tucker, South Kingtown.....	35
Graham Street Primary, Providence.....	46
George H. Gardner, Allenton	75
Ann E. Tefft, Kingston.....	11
Louisquisset School.....	60
Elveton Arnold, Dist. No. 13, North Kingstown	21

\$38 02

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We are indebted to the Hon. Charles Sumner for a copy of the Speech of the Hon. B. F. Wade, of Ohio, in the Senate of the United States, April 21st, 1862. His subject is, Traitors and their Sympathizers. Would that those burning words of truth and patriotic eloquence might find an utterance in every household of our land.

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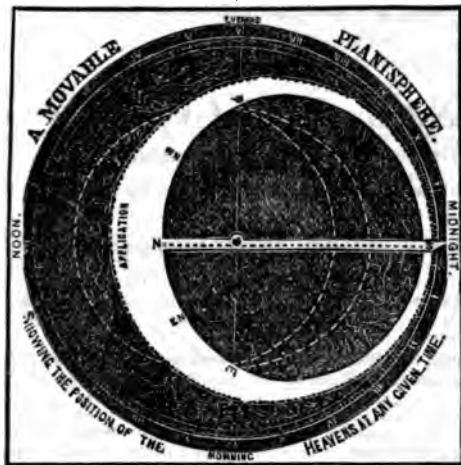
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HENRY BARNARD, LL. D., *American Journal of Education*

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The R. I. Schoolmaster.

JULY, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

NUMBER SEVEN.

For the Schoolmaster.
Political Education.

B.

*Mr. Status.** Good evening, *Mr. Gradus**; I am glad to meet you this evening, for I have a new difficulty to present for your consideration. You are always so ready to lend a helping hand that I shall expect, if any one could give me relief, to receive it from you. But I must say, in honesty, that I very much doubt your ability to free me from my present embarrassment.

Mr. Gradus. Good evening, sir. Thank you for your kind words, but what can be the extremity into which you are brought to-night. From your representations it must be something unusual. I am not accustomed to find you so

* For the special benefit of the unlearned, the editor deems it not inappropriate (although contrary to the custom of the Honorable and Distinguished Homer Wilbur, A. M.) to translate all Latin terms. Hence, he begs respectfully to state that he has selected the words *gradus* and *status* with particular reference to their classical meaning. *Gradus* signifies a *step* a *pace*; and is chosen because the gentleman who assumes this nomen is a progressive man. He is constantly stepping forward. Ennius says, *proferre gradum*; and Livy uses the following words: *Piditum aciem instructam pleno gradu in hostem inducit*. So this man *Gradus* is supposed to represent the class of *go-ahead* men,—progressives,—step-by-step men.

Status, on the contrary, is a verbal *noun-neutre*, not active,—from *sto*, *stare*, to stand; i. e., to stand still; and so in its intensive force to stand still so severely as to go backwards. As Plautus remarks, *In statu stat senex*. This *senex* is the identical old man we mean, albeit he may be but thirty or forty years of age, possibly not twenty-five. In the gear of the present age *Mr. Status* is the conservative, i. e., the hold-back, the *breeching*. He has great regard for the *recepti inter vetores mores*.

desponding. Have you found some fresh difficulty in your new method of biquadratics, or is it some extreme case of school discipline which has taxed your patience to exhaustion and rendered you so nervous this evening?

Mr. Status. Oh, nothing of either. An entirely different question, I assure you. One which has indeed exhausted my patience, though.

Mr. Gradus. Possible? Pray, what can it be, then. Do not keep me in suspense.

Mr. Status. Well, then, it is this new department in THE SCHOOLMASTER. What can these editors think! Why! is it to be supposed that every subject within the range of human thought is to be mastered and taught by every schoolmaster in the State?

Mr. Gradus. Every teacher should endeavor, certainly, to approach as near that standard as possible. The *perfect* teacher will know all things, and be able to present *any* knowledge systematically and without ambiguity.

Mr. Status. But just look at the subjects to be treated the coming year. There are all the *-tics* and *-ologies* and *-ures* imaginable. I can never understand it all, and beyond all that, I don't believe it wise to discuss all these subjects. What is the advantage of *didactics* and *geology* and *botany*, especially in our common schools? And then to cap the climax, "Political Education"!

Mr. Gradus. It makes you sigh for "the good old times," does it?

Mr. Status. Indeed, it does. But, really, my friend, is not that a step in the wrong direction, and a pretty long one, too?

Mr. Gradus. Why what are your objections to the department of Political Education?

Mr. Status. I think it is infringing upon the

freedom of political opinion. Our public schools should never be used to teach politics.

Mr. Gradus. But did you not read the introductory article in the last number of THE SCHOOLMASTER, in which the term *political* education was defined?

Mr. Status. No, I did not see the last number. What was the definition? I suppose the term *political* needs no explanation. *Political* relates to *politics*.

Mr. Gradus. True. But all depends upon the kind of relation. It was distinctly stated in the article to which I refer, that the editor did not propose to make politicians nor to discuss the peculiar doctrines of the political parties.

Mr. Status. Pray, what can be his aim, then? Where is the propriety of using the term *political*, if there is to be no reference to politics?

Mr. Gradus. The word is used in its primitive and its proper sense. It is derived, you know, from the Latin *polites*, from *polis*, a city, and has reference to the citizen. The article tells us that the design of the series is to discuss the duties of the citizen, and to give such useful hints as shall prove available in practical life. I think, Mr. Status, you can hardly call that an interference with political freedom or teaching politics.

Mr. Status. Why, no. But is that the design? If so, it is surely not open to that objection. But do you think that the discussion of such questions can be *profitable*? I am sure I do not know what could be said, proper for an educational journal, upon the duties of the citizen, except to tell him to obey the laws, and any body knows that *that* ought to be done. The point should be to induce them to do as well as they know how; and I am sure I do not think a series of articles in THE SCHOOLMASTER will prevent any rascal from stealing.

Mr. Gradus. Perhaps not. But something else is necessary, I fancy, in the education of a citizen. It may do well enough for a *subject* to obey the laws passed by the noble (!) lords, sanctioned by the king and executed by the officers of the crown. But we, the citizens of a republic, are all *law-makers*, as well as law-keepers; and I hold it absolutely necessary to the well-being of a republic that the *people* should understand the entire plan of government. For example: every citizen, every school-boy, should know thoroughly and perfectly the United States Constitution and the general laws and principles of government growing out of it.

Mr. Status. Oh! that dry old document of the Constitution! What can there be useful or interesting in that to the boys and girls in our schools?

Mr. Gradus. I think there may be found much that is both interesting and useful—highly useful. Are you much acquainted with the Constitution?

Mr. Status. Well, yes, some. I have read it, and frequently referred to it in some useless discussion, in which I chanced at some time to get interested; and now I think of it, since the breaking out of this miserable rebellion I have had occasion to consult the musty old document with some fresh interest.

Mr. Gradus. I dare say you have. Nor are you the only one. A new importance attaches to all the principles of our government. But I have an engagement at six, and must bid you good evening. I hope we shall find an article in the next SCHOOLMASTER upon some point in the Constitution. If so, after reading it, we will pursue this subject. Good evening, sir.

Mr. Status. Good evening.

FLOWERS.—Flowers were not made just to bloom and fade where they grow, but to be plucked and carried on with us into the winter time; to make the memory sweet, and the heart a garden; to blossom in the song; to spring up in the sermon; to be beautiful and blessed everywhere. The garden has ever been, since the days of Eve, the paradise of women. "The curse of banishment," says Julia Kavanaugh, "that fell on both her and Adam, touched her more nearly. After his fall, Eden itself could no more have been the limit of his hopes and desires, but Eve, if allowed to do so, could have lingered in the happy place forever. Her daughters still love what she loved, and wherever they dwell, in the wild or in the city, there too are the flowers which Eve first tended in Eden."

TEACHING CHILDREN.—Do all in your power to teach your children self-government. If a child is passionate, teach him by example, and use gentle and patient means to curb his temper. If he is greedy, cultivate liberality in him. If he is sulky, charm him out of it by encouraging frank good-humor. If he is indolent, accustom him to exertion. If pride makes his obedience reluctant, subdue him by counsel or discipline. In short, give your children the habit of overcoming their besetting sin.

From the Lower Canada Journal of Education.

Teaching as a Profession.

WE publish with great pleasure the following letter from a young, active and intelligent teacher, who with much courage and ability has taken up the cudgels to vindicate the rights of his profession against what he considers, perhaps not unjustly, a disparaging remark in a recent article in *Blackwood*.

But whether the world will or will not appreciate at its full value the noble art of teaching, its position has been defined once for all in the eyes of every true Christian. The greatest sanction that could be given to any profession, has been given it, by the GREAT TEACHER, who did nothing but teach by his words as well as by his examples. Indeed, the lowliness in which this profession is kept is in itself additional evidence of its greatness. Let the teacher, while he fully appreciates the importance of his calling, remember that if the external forms of it are not always as pleasant and as brilliant as he might wish them, it is perhaps because much is to be achieved in this world by the *meek and the lowly*, and by them alone; and while he has to deal with the *little ones*, let him be reminded that unless he has their *faith and their simplicity*, he will fail in his mission. Such has been the secret of the successful efforts of many humble and pious teachers, and the reverse has been the cause of the signal failure of many who had undertaken teaching merely as a *business*, to be made lucrative if possible, and to be contemptuously discarded as soon as a more profitable one came in sight.

This is, however, no reason why the teacher should be debarred from a legitimate ambition, and why he should not expect to meet at the hands of his fellow-men with that consideration which he really deserves. But let it be his aim more to deserve it than to obtain it; should he fail in the latter object, he certainly will have more than any one else, ample motives for overlooking the temporary injustice done him individually, or even that which, we admit, is generally done to his class, and which, it seems, is more tenaciously persisted in than most other social wrongs.

The article in *Blackwood* reminds us of the fact, that in large cities in Catholic countries the task of *cutting and polishing* the minds of the little boys and girls of the laboring classes is, in a great measure, that of men, who having made the solemn vows of *poverty and of humility*, would with very bad grace complain either

"of their remuneration or their social position."

It is, however, a matter of fact that in most cases a tolerable living is secured for them and the greatest respect paid them by those who benefit by their exertions. Were it otherwise they would have to submit to it, and they do so cheerfully when the case happens. Such a degree of abnegation is not to be expected from lay teachers in general, and no one could dream of it in the case of a married teacher, where it would not be *self-sacrifice*, and would amount to the sacrifice of others dearer than oneself.

All we mean to say is, that the less the teacher will care for purely temporal advantages and honors, the nearer he will be to the true spirit of his profession. At the same time, as we have already stated, emulation and a reasonable desire for promotion ought not, by any means, to be excluded from his mind. These, in the imperfect state of our nature, are legitimate elements of success not to be disregarded. In fine, while we should like to see the world give the teacher his due remuneration and consideration, we should be sorry, on the other hand, if he altogether depended on these conditions, and if, in the vain pursuit of honors and profits not within his reach, he made himself in fact more miserable and less useful.

SHEBBROKE, C. E., March 14th, 1862.

Mr. Editor:—In the January number of *Blackwood*, in an article on "The Poor and their Public Schools," a paragraph attracted my attention, which it seemed to me worth while to answer, not so much on account of the article itself, as because the same misapprehension seems to exist in the minds of many nearer to us than the writer, and who might be expected to take juster views. The paragraph runs as follows:

"It is well that all parties should understand each other on this question. Far be it from us to degrade the schoolmaster. We agree with Mr. Snell so far as this, that much has been done of late years, and rightly done, to raise him. But if Mr. Snell means to assert that the men whom the state wants, and whom the state is to pay, for cutting and polishing the minds of the little boys and girls of the laboring classes, are those who claim a social equality with surgeons and lawyers, he very much mistakes the feeling of the country."

Mr. Snell is master of "one of the best schools in Somersetshire," and complained that "the best masters were dissatisfied, both with their remuneration and social position." And such

are the comments upon that complaint of a periodical holding a high position in the literature of Britain, and the exponent of a large portion of English thought and culture. Proh Pudor! So this is the relative position which education is expected to accept among the questions of the day? Inferior to those which concern the physical nature, the business relations, or that political management which styles itself statesmanship.

The proper position of a calling is determined by two things. The subject matter with which it has to do, and the fitness of those occupied in it for accomplishing its proper work. The reputation of it in the sight of the public may or may not correspond to its proper position, but those engaged in it at least should understand and appreciate it as it is. What now is the material upon which the teacher works? It is *mind*. His object is to train it, to develop in it the *power of thought*. If you please, he is the servant of the state, if you do not prefer to say the servant of God, employed to cut and polish the minds of the young. What vocation is nobler? Does not the statesman, the minister of the Gospel himself, have to build on the foundation which he lays? If indeed we can suppose the teacher's task be done when he has poured a little grammar or geography into the heads of his pupils, he would deserve little praise. That surely could not suffice to put the teacher "in loco parentis" in regard to his pupil. But the constant moral power and influence going from teacher to pupil, the attractive force of a loving and superior mind, are influences which mould the mind, especially of youth, as surely as the learned essays of the statesman.

But it may be said, with all this fine-spun theory, those engaged in the service of education do not themselves honor it to this extent, by preparing themselves for such a work, by pressing forward to such a standard. Too true! Exactly here I am at issue with the writer in *Blackwood*, because he seems inclined to discourage such effort rather than to promote it. There are, however, many such men, and women, too, who do honor to the profession and to humanity. Who has not spoken with reverence the name of Arnold? What teacher in America has not learned to respect the names of Barnard and Horace Mann? And hundreds of others, in humbler positions, but with equal zeal and fidelity, have done good service in this

work. *Has medicine yet become so mathematical in its teaching that it can afford to sneer at its sister sciences?* Or has the law so completely filled its votaries with its sublime ideal, that it can cast the first stone? Perhaps it is to politics that we are to look for an example of universal disinterestedness and devotion to the public good? Let the long list of systems of healing, the popular prejudice against lawyers, the portraits drawn by politicians of each other, answer for me. Heaven forbid that I should depreciate the value in the state of the good physician, the honest lawyer or the true statesman; but still I affirm that the earnest teacher has a work to do which underlies all the superstructure of society, and that to him the state should accord the honor as well as the remuneration of her most faithful and necessary servant.

And to those fellow-teachers who may read this, I appeal to use every endeavor, by earnest, persevering labor and careful thought, to convince the public that our aims are as high as our profession of itself is glorious. M.

Nouns of Multitude.

A little girl was looking at the picture of a number of ships, when she exclaimed, "See what a *flock* of ships." We corrected her by saying, that a flock of ships was called a *fleet*, and a fleet of sheep was called a *flock*.

And here we may add, for the benefit of the foreigner who is mastering the intricacies of our language in respect to nouns of multitude, that a flock of girls is called a *bevy*, and a bevy of wolves is called a *pack*, and a pack of thieves is called a *gang*, and a gang of angels is called a *host*, and a host of porpoises is called a *shoal*, and a shoal of buffaloes is called a *herd*, and a herd of children is called a *troop*, and a troop of partridges is called a *covey*, and a covey of beauties is called a *galaxy*, and a galaxy of ruffians is called a *horde*, and a horde of rubbish is called a *heap*, and a heap of oxen is called a *drove*, and a drove of blackguards is called a *mob*, and a mob of whales is called a *school*, and a school of worshippers is called a *congregation*, and a congregation of engineers is called a *corps*, and a corps of robbers is called a *band*, and a band of locusts is called a *swarm*, and a swarm of people is called a *crowd*, and a crowd of gentle folk is called the *elite*, and the elite of the city's thieves and rascals are called the *roughs*, and a miscellaneous crowd of city folks is called the *community* or the *public*, according as they are spoken of by the religious *community* or the secular *public*.—*Pitman's Phonographic Magazine*.

For the Schoolmaster.
A Phenomenon in Human Nature.

BY JOE, THE JERSEY MUTE.

I cannot, for once, forbear sending THE SCHOOLMASTER a little sketch of my former pupil, Eliza, who was one of the greatest singularities in the human nature of any children. She was a mute, born of an Indian woman, also deaf. She was about fifteen years of age; irascible, revengeful, and of a domineering disposition. She was a terror to the whole school, and therefore could not be loved. Her hates were violent, and her loves as strong. Notwithstanding her foibles, she was generous to a fault, and violent in her attachments.

In the summer of 1850, if I remember aright, I was confined to my bed by a slight attack of dysentery. Eliza, whom I had punished the day before, came into my bed-room and inquired after my health in a manner that struck me as tender and kind. "A little better, child," said I. "I wish you would bring me a razor." I was still more surprised at the cheerfulness with which she complied with my request. This daughter of the forest was peevish, stubborn, and noted for all sorts of bad qualities, but, strange to say, she continued her visits to me during my illness, ministering to my wants as if she were my daughter.

On another occasion I gave her a reproof, which she could ill-brook, and she scratched my hand, inflicting a slight wound on my middle finger. I made her kneel down on the floor in the presence of all my scholars. She threatened to "destroy me, body and soul," to quote her strong language without any modification; but, when I afterwards ordered her to return to her seat, she took a pretty picture out of her pocket and reached it out to me, beseeching me to accept it. If I refused to accept it, she would not rise up, but would remain where she was, even for many hours.

She uniformly brought me a pitcher of water when I was thirsty; if I asked any other girl in her stead to bring me some water, she would kick up a row in the room. She declared she could not be trifled in this way.

I was obliged to correct her, and she called me "wicked," but, as soon as her excitement cooled, she gave me an old but excellent book, written by Dr. Adam Clarke, a celebrated English writer. She also gave me some cakes, which I was obliged to accept, although I had no taste whatever for them. If I had rejected them on that score, she would have refused to write or

read. She, yes, my pupil, would not allow me to speak to any other girls except on business; if she saw me speak to them familiarly she would pinch them black-and-blue.

Somebody presented her with a handsome picture, which she immediately handed over to me. In the hurry of putting it into my pocket I tore it, and was exasperated at what she called my *unheard-of* carelessness. I was frightened half out of my wits by her violent gesticulations, and I stood in silence until the tempest of her passion ended in a calm, and she became as remarkable for her playful disposition as she had before been for her violent temper.

At another time, during school hours, Eliza asked me if she might go out to get a drink. Her request was, of course, granted. After courtesying to me, she left the room. Scarcely a quarter of an hour elapsed before she returned with a bouquet of flowers in her hand, her face wreathed in smiles, and, approaching me, she handed me the flowers, which she said she had picked up for me. I need not say that I accepted them with many professions of gratitude.

I asked her if she prayed to God every morning and evening. She answered that she always prayed, although she knew she was a bad girl. "Why do you pray?" asked I. She answered, that she had many things to ask of God.

Eliza's mother came to see her. She asked Eliza if she liked her teacher; to which she replied, that though I was generally strict with her in matters of no great importance, she looked upon me as her father and liked, not to say loved, me better than her friends.

At first sight, you would suppose that Eliza had a soul alive to all the finer sensibilities of nature, but her heart was steeled, if I may be allowed to use the expression, against the pleasurable emotions of love. If you told her that this or that wealthy gentleman was desperately in love with her, you could not find any expression in her countenance implying the least degree of surprise, but, on the contrary, she wore the same air of indifference as before she was rallied on. Again, if you avowed your affection for her, she would still look indifferent. It would, of course, be folly to try to win the heart of this curious machine and marry her.

Before she left school, she as good as presented me with a daguerreotype likeness of herself, value, twenty-five cents. I have not heard of her these five years.

While upon the subject of my Indian scholar.

I must be permitted to state that a young gentleman, a former class-mate of mine, and who is now associated with me in the instruction of the deaf-dumb, is connected by direct descent with Pocahontas, of whom we have heard so much.

Five years ago, I visited the school-room of Professor Clerc, in the Hartford Asylum, where I saw a negro or Indian, I am not certain which, boy, whose look was intelligent. From his mode of conversing it appeared that, if he was not well educated, he at least possessed a mind capable of rising to the highest state of cultivation and refinement.

From the New York Teacher.

Some Truths for Teachers and Others.

THESE are many motives which may induce those to teach who are totally unfitted for the occupation by nature, as well as by the want of proper acquirements. And that there are many such filling the place of teacher is too obvious a fact. This is especially true with regard to female teachers, inasmuch as there are fewer avenues through which they may, by their own exertions, secure an independence, a thing very desirable to a woman of culture, as well as to man. This feeling is on the increase, and the present condition of affairs, both public and private, will do much to augment it. But those who are dependent upon their own exertions for the means of subsistence are much more pardonable. The young woman who can obtain the situation of teacher in a district school (and very slight qualifications will obtain it, especially if she will accept equally slight compensation) feels, and truly feels, that her employment is more honorable, and she consequently more honored than she would be in almost any other department of labor open to her, even though conscience asserts that she is miserably performing the duties of some *true* teacher, who very likely is idle, none being able to appreciate or compensate her superiority.

This is the condition of things in the country more generally than in cities and villages, where the cause of the evil is much less, and consequently the evil itself. In many parts of the country there are too many teachers for the good of the profession. And there will continue to be so long as so many teach who are not teachers as the word should signify. And these will teach so long as there are no other doors opened to them where they may obtain what necessity and inclination impels them to do.

And who will help to open those doors? Who, of all the brave fathers and brothers not engaged in their country's cause, will enlist in this cause? And, instead of adding another bolt and placing their backs against them by advancing and acting upon the theory of female incapacity by nature, prove themselves true men by adding to the happiness of fellow-beings. If the privilege were only allowed her, woman would soon compel this theory and its practice to be abandoned without usurping anything which is truly man's prerogative or stepping aside from what is truly feminine. When this shall have been accomplished not a few teachers will gladly bid farewell to the school-room, which, to them, has been irksome, dispiriting and, morally and mentally, of very little profit to either teacher or taught, notwithstanding no small effort may have been made in the performance of duty.

We would not willingly believe that more than a very few, who are acting as teachers, do not really make an effort to perform their duties according to their ability, but the ability is wanting, first in natural capacity and equally in training.

Happily, it is becoming more and more customary to educate and train teachers for their work. May all institutes, associations and schools for this object be attended with success, and the cause of education will be greatly advanced thereby. Would that every teacher, for the good of self, for the cause of education, for the welfare of immortal minds, for the sake of right and duty, would conscientiously decide whether they are in the right place or not. And if not, let principle overcome all obstacles and obtain that satisfaction which a sacrifice made in the performance of duty will inevitably bring.

HE KNOWS THE REST.—A father came home from his business at early evening, and took his little girl upon his knee. After a few dove-like caresses, she crept to his bosom and fell asleep. He carried her himself to her chamber and said, "Nellie would not like to go to bed, and not say her prayers." Half opening her large blue eyes, she dreamily articulated,

"Now I lay me down to sleep,
I pray the Lord—"

then adding, in sweet murmur, "He knows the rest," she sank on her pillow in His watchful care who "giveth His beloved asleep."

WHAT kind of fruit is never sold single? The pear.

For the Schoolmaster.
The Pedagogue's Fishing Excursion.

THE boat was engaged, the bait prepared and all things in readiness for the voyage, and my three companions for the trip had arrived in the evening. About *one* in the morning Ned Cook (my bed-fellow) gave me a pinch that unloosed the chains of Morpheus and almost threw me into a spasmodic fit. When I could recover my breath (which returned as speedily as Jeff. Davis' fifteen millions loan was taken) I asked what had happened, expecting to hear that there had been an earthquake and that Ricketville had seceded and gone to China. With the utmost coolness he asked if it was not time to get up and start, asserting that it was almost sunrise. I struck a match, got the time, and he settled down with a grunt, as though he would sleep again. After restoring my watch to its fob, I, too, settled myself, though not with a grunt, for the contracted state of my breathing apparatus would not yet admit of that. Fifteen minutes more, and just as I was ready to drop off again, a tremendous rap on the door, set me to thinking of thunder showers and strokes of lightning, but I was somewhat relieved to see the door thrown open and a figure clothed in white enter the room. Like "Abou Ben Adhem," I spoke and said, "Bill Haddock, what wantest thou?" The figure raised its head and answered, "Tom, the time of night?" The answer was given and the figure departed, but in less than an hour the figure came again and with a look made all of eager hope, declared that sure 'twas near the hour of day. Aware that two o'clock was yet to come, I arose and commenced preparations for the day.

In about half an hour, which time was spent in putting up provisions for the voyage, harnessing the venerable occupant of the stable into a sort of spring go-cart, and packing in the feed, fishing tackle, &c., we were ready for a start. We started, and things went on swimmingly for a couple of miles, when the morning broke and at the same time our spring broke, both of which breakages created decided sensations, though of an entirely different character. Expressions of admiration were suddenly checked for those of denunciation, as Ned proceeded to rearrange his cookery, which was thrown by the accident into the middle of the road, and Stone, from the opposite side, begged permission to be excused from serving as a paving-stone until after the excursion. No bones being fractured, we repaired damages by inserting a rail

from a fence near by, which Bill declared was rather questionable railery, as we had no permission from the owner so to do.

Another start and another mile gained, when, all of a sudden, for some unaccountable, incomprehensible reason, the antiquarian quadruped ceased her ambulatory motion, and despite our persuasive eloquence and somewhat forcible gestures, refused to comply with our demands to move forward. Having read somewhere, either in Shakespeare or the Farmer's Almanac, that the effect was preceded by a cause, I anxiously began investigations. That her movable appendages were not paralyzed was very evident, from the fact that she often made a dash at our dasher with her feet in a most impressive manner. After a thorough examination we were forced to the conclusion that it was owing to the fact that she was one of that class of females that take notions, strong notions, and unaccountable notions. Well, here was a fix, at bay with an obstinate old bay two miles from the bay where our boat was all in readiness. Stone raved and quoted scripture, saying,

"When she will she will, you may depend on't,
And when she wont she wont, and there's an end on't,"

Haddock proposed, as she was obstinate and would have her own way, to let her secede and shift for herself, but knowing that in such an event she would not only smash her own bones but interfere with others in her passage, I was determined to keep her in the union and bring her into subjection; and when Ned asked if I couldn't make her back-down, a bright idea entered my pericranium, and, inviting the boys to jump in, by a vigorous pulling and sawing on the bit, I caused her to back-down some rode, after which operation she concluded that to obey was better than kicking, and to hearken than the lash of Peter. Passing over the minor events in the history of our voyage, I arrive at the period when the declining of the sun admonishes us to pull up and pull in. Let me throw over once more, said Cook, and suiting the action to the word, he gave his hook and sinker a tremendous whirl and threw off. It was an effectual throw, for a loud shout proclaimed the fact that he had caught a Haddock, the hook having caught Bill, who was bending over the side of the boat, by the slack of his unmentionables. "Ned, how will you cook that fish?" asked Stone. "None of your joking, if a stone could swim I'd launch you," said Bill. Suffice it to say, in conclusion, that this was the only fish caught during the day, and that,

although we could boast of ruddy faces and peeling noses, we were none the less willing to bring our wearied frames to land once more.

UNUS.

From "Teachers' Institutes," by S. P. Bates.
Three Methods of Instruction.

To establish a course of instruction which shall secure these results, it is proper that the teacher should know what plan of conducting a class recitation will prove most effectual. Of the manner in which class recitations are conducted during the second period, of development, an analysis may be made into three classes, each of which has some advantages and defects.

The leading feature in the first method consists in requiring the pupil to so prepare himself for recitation, that he can, without any aid or hint from book or teacher, state the topics and develop the principles of the whole or any part of the lesson,—can give a complete *résumé* of the author,—while it is the study of the instructor, if he asks any questions, to be sure that the pupil shall gather from it no clue to the answer. In pursuing this method the teacher exercises a stern censorship, and holds his pupil to a strict account for the preparation and proper understanding of his lessons. By this course the scholar learns to depend upon himself,—a habit invaluable in the subsequent pursuit of learning, in the practice of any of the learned professions, and in fact in any of the duties of life. But this system possesses many radical defects, and its virtues are only of the negative character. It is the old stereotype method of *hearing* classes say their lessons, which a wooden man might do nearly as well. "We can easily conceive," says Dr. Huntington, "of all the bare *material* of instruction being conveyed into a school-room through a mechanism of pipes in the wall, or maps let down by pulleys, and its discipline administered by a veiled executioner, no heart-relations being suffered to grow up between teacher and taught."

A teacher of the second class pursues a course entirely different from this. His system of instruction consists in pouring out a profusion of knowledge upon every subject broached in the class-room. Filled with enthusiasm himself, he is impatient to inspire his pupils with his own conceptions. Without waiting for the pupil to tell in an indifferent manner what he can dilate upon so well, and unable to command

the impartiality of a judge and the patience of a listener, he tells everything, he explains everything, and rising with the feelings his subject excites, he glows with an eloquence which reaches the coldest heart and awakens the feeblest mind. If a question be proposed, he does not ask it so as to elicit the cold naked fact, but in such a manner that the pupil cannot fail to answer it correctly; or he includes the answer in the glowing statement of the question, and concludes with "Must it not be so?" or, "Can it be otherwise?" "Does not that logically follow?"

The advantage in this method consists in the opportunity it affords for every member of a class to acquire some knowledge of the subject, and to appreciate its spirit. No scholar completely fails. Each takes in what his capacity and inclination will allow, and though in a portion of almost every class it will be very moderate, yet with this grade of students it will be likely to be something more than would be acquired by the first method. For, when a pupil without capacity is compelled to con for recitation what he cannot understand, or the pupil with capacity is compelled to do the same thing without fully comprehending or feeling the force of what he has prepared to recite, the advantage is very slight.

There are some evils connected with this second method of instruction. The pupil is not trained to habits of accuracy and self-reliance. He fails to acquire a control over his faculties, and the power of thinking how and when he pleases; but he must wait for a favorable moment—for the lucid interval—and his efforts are desultory and governed by fits of enthusiasm. The effect upon his habits of study is even worse. It has a tendency to render the best efforts of the best scholars irregular in the preparation of their lessons, to make the irregular still more erratic and careless, and to lessen the incentives of the dull and heedless to improve even the feeble talents they have.

The third method of instruction is a combination of the former two. The representative teacher of this class first rigidly exacts of the pupil a systematic and lucid statement of the lesson assigned, and critically examines him upon the opinions which he has acquired from it, and the grounds upon which they are based. He then opens to him the stores of his own mind, and dilates with all the fervor of his nature upon the relations, the beauties, and the glories of the subject. This method combines

the excellencies of both the former, without embracing many of their defects. The pupil is in the first place encouraged to make all the discoveries he can upon the subject, by the exercise of his own unaided powers of understanding, and to set them forth to the teacher as best he can. He thus gets credit for all that he is able to do, and is encouraged by every day's success to do the best possible. There is at least the stimulus of fair opportunity, with an attentive instructor able to weigh and duly appreciate every consideration presented. But the system would be imperfect were this all. The teacher now takes up the subject, and is able from his familiarity with it to elucidate and explain the matter from a different and a higher stand-point. His information is not confined to the mere skeleton of the science presented in the text-book; but he has read extended treatises upon it, and can pour forth from the treasures of his knowledge what will imbue the subject with new life. He can view the matter as a whole, and at each step has the advantage of the accumulated light of that which is to come, as well as that which has been passed over by the class. He is able to perceive, too, the poetic relations of the science, and the relation which this particular branch sustains in a system of complete development.

As this system of conducting a class recitation is by far the most complete and philosophic, it is recommended above all others, and he who adopts and pursues it with enthusiasm, who feels the moral dignity of his calling and the value of his work, cannot fail to win victories in a field where the opportunities are constantly recurring, and where skill and bravery are sure of success.

Defensible Definitions.

Jury—Twelve prisoners in a box to try one or more at the bar.

State's Evidence—A wretch who is pardoned for being baser than his comrades.

Public Abuse—The mud with which every traveller is spattered on his road to distinction.

Bargain—A ludicrous transaction, in which each party thinks he cheated the other.

Doctor—A man who kills you to-day to save you from dying to-morrow.

Author—A dealer in words, who often gets paid in his own coin.

Dentist—A person who finds work for his own teeth by taking out those of other people,

Lawyer—A learned gentleman who rescues your estate from your enemy and keeps it himself.

Sensibility—A quality by which its possessor, in attempting to promote the happiness of other people, loses his own.

Distant Relations—People who imagine they have a claim to rob you if you are rich and to insult you if you are poor.

Housewifery—An ancient art, said to have been fashionable among young girls and wives; now entirely out of use, or practiced only by the lower orders.

Political Honesty—Previous lexicographers have not noticed this word, treating it, I presume as fabulous; for definition, vide self-interest.

For the Schoolmaster.

Lieutenant Henry R. Pierce.

Of the many illustrious dead whose names will be conspicuous in the future annals of Rhode Island, there are few who were bound by stronger ties to their own circle of friends or to the community in which they lived than the subject of the present sketch. Lieut. Pierce was born in 1828 in the town of Coventry, Vt. Of the incidents and experiences of his boyhood we have but little information except that the moderate means of his parents had taught him, from a child, the importance of industrious and frugal habits. We know, however, from his own account that he early began to long for higher means of culture and a wider field of usefulness than were afforded by the narrow limits of his father's farm. Like many an other New England boy, his soul was athirst for knowledge and his heart confident in the belief that no obstacles would prove insurmountable to a mind bent on its attainment. In order to obtain the funds requisite to pursue a liberal course of education, he left home at the age of sixteen and entered the employment of Mr. Child, the husband of Lydia Maria Child, at Northampton, Mass. In the autumn of 1846 he went to Easthampton and commenced his studies preparatory for college. His strict economy and diligent application to study came to the notice of Seth Warner, Esq., a citizen of that place, and afterwards one of Mr. Pierce's warmest friends. This gentleman at once invited him to become a member of his family. "I little knew at the time his worth," says Mr. Warner, "and was far from thinking that I was laying the foundation of a sincere and deep friendship.

It took but a short time, however, to find out and prize a nature so frank, open and sincere as his. He won his way rapidly to my heart, and the person who entered my family a diffident stranger and whom I received through motives of sympathy, I might almost say of pity, was soon established there as a true friend."

After completing his studies at Easthampton he entered Amherst College, where he was distinguished by the same traits that were afterwards prominent in his character. His frank and manly bearing and excellent qualities of mind and heart won for him the esteem of his classmates, two of whom were present to pay the last tribute of respect at his mournful obsequies. While residing at Easthampton his thoughts were directed to the subject of personal piety and the determination was taken to lead thenceforth a Christian life. He united with the Congregational Church in that place and retained that connection during the rest of his life. At the time of his graduation he had partly resolved to enter the ministry, but not feeling sure that that was his calling, he took charge, for a year or two, of the High School in Saxonville, Mass. He then left this situation and began to study law with Hon. Charles R. Train, of Framingham. But after a few months he went to Hopkinton and resumed teaching again as principal of the High School there. In 1855 he removed to Uxbridge where he taught two years and was then appointed principal of the High School in Woonsocket, Rhode Island, where he remained till he entered the army.

While residing at Uxbridge he was united in marriage to Miss Tillinghast, of Hopkinton, one of his former pupils. During his first year in Woonsocket he buried his oldest child, a beautiful infant daughter, and left at the time of his death only one child, a much loved son.

From the commencement of the present civil contest his sympathies were all enlisted in behalf of the government. During the last summer vacation, when the tidings of our repulse at Manassas flashed over the land, he voluntarily hastened to Washington to see if anything could be done for the sick and wounded of his adopted town. Through the succeeding autumn he entered heartily into the work of military drill and discipline, and finally determined to leave the quiet pursuits in which he had been so long engaged and take an active part in the defence of the Constitution and the Union. With the close of the autumn term ended his labors in the school-room, and a few weeks

later saw him on his way to the scene of conflict. He was present at the capture of Roanoke, though his battalion took no active part in the battle, and was afterwards stationed for a few weeks upon the island. Here his company had expected to remain, but were instead suddenly summoned to Newbern. While upon the island he wrote home many letters, not only to his family but also to his pupils and other friends. In all these, though his heart turned with earnest longings to the home and kindred he had left behind, he utters no word of regret at having thus gone forth to battle for his country's liberties and rights.

The incidents of the battle of Newbern are familiar to all. No portion of our troops did nobler service that day than the Rhode Island regiments. There, just at the close of the contest, while rallying his men for an attack upon the enemy's rifle-pits, fell Lieutenant Pierce, and almost without a struggle or a groan his spirit passed away from earth.

It did not require a long intercourse to convince one that Mr. Pierce was a man of marked and decided character. To a stranger, even his general bearing bespoke the possession of an earnest and whole-souled nature. And this impression, so usual at first, was only confirmed by further and more intimate acquaintance. Beneath a manner that seemed somewhat brusque and abrupt lay a mind keen, active and well-informed, and a heart in sympathy with all that is true and noble. It might have been expected that one who had contended with so many difficulties in obtaining an education would highly prize its advantages and have acquired, during the many years in which he had been a student, a valuable store of knowledge. And this fund of information was by no means allowed to lie unimproved. It was not for the purpose of selfish acquisition that he had delved in the mine of knowledge, but that he might be better fitted to live a useful and worthy life. The weapons of his mental armory were kept bright by constant use, and the treasures he had accumulated were at the service of all whom they could benefit. It was his especial delight to exercise his own powers and test those of his friends by engaging them in argument and debate. This natural taste and talent, strengthened by long and careful practice, had made him a speaker of more than ordinary ability and interest. He was strongly inclined at times to the legal profession and certainly possessed not a few of the qualities that would have made him eminent as a lawyer.

The most striking traits of Lieut. Pierce's character were those of an ardent temperament and an earnest, sincere and high-minded nature. Closely allied also to his own generous qualities was a hearty detestation of anything low or mean in others. With a frank and open foe he could wage an honorable warfare, but with meanness or deceit, whether in the school-room, in social or political life, he would make no compromise. Nor had he any sympathy with those of illiberal or narrow-minded views. Especially was this so in religious matters. Accustomed, himself, to independence of thought and action, he freely accorded the same privilege to others. Though a man of decided and outspoken preferences, he could look over the barriers of creeds and sects, and love and reverence all who sought to hold the truth in sincerity and uprightness.

His impulsive disposition led him at times to speak and act with greater haste than would have been prudent, but no one who was present at his last public interview with his school and heard his confession of this fault, could doubt that he himself most deeply felt and regretted it. His friends revert with pleasure to many occasions when, called forth by some passing event, with subdued voice and manner he would speak with a tenderness and pathos that touched the hearts of all listeners and revealed a richness and depth of feeling that surprised even those who knew him best.

No trait in his character was more prominent than his loyalty to duty. Though liable, like others, to arrive at wrong conclusions or be misled by prejudice, he would not swerve from what he believed to be a right and honorable course. Animated by this principle and by an ardent spirit of patriotism, and not by any vain desire of military glory, he went forth in the hour of his country's peril to maintain and defend her rights and liberties. In a letter written to one of his pupils, only three or four days before his death, he acknowledges that the pomp and pageantry of war have few attractions for him when compared with the peaceful avocations in which he had been engaged, but at the same time expresses his readiness to do and suffer all things in defence of our glorious flag. "I could not bear," he said to another friend, "that my child should grow up and in after years ask me why I did not do something towards putting down this wicked rebellion." In the light of this ruling motive of his life his last injunction to his soldiers, "Let not a man flinch," acquires a new significance.

In thus attempting to give a slight sketch of Lieutenant Pierce's life and character, the writer is but too well aware of the faults and incompleteness of his effort. There is something intangible about character, especially when of the original and native stamp that distinguished the subject of this essay, which renders it no easy task to transfer to paper those traits and lineaments that make men so unlike each other. But yet it is some consolation to know that his real and permanent biography is engraved in the hearts and memories of those who knew and loved him. Far from the scenes of strife and war his body rests in peace within the quiet grave made by his own hands. But the influence of his useful life and noble example shall extend beyond the reach of mortal computation. Long will his pupils remember his cheerful countenance, his friendly counsels and instructions, and the many scenes in which he was so prominent. Long will his fellow teachers recall his genial presence and active coöperation in every good and noble enterprise, and long will all who knew him well cherish the memory of a true friend, a genuine patriot and an upright, Christian man. May God support and comfort that afflicted one, the light of whose earthly dwelling has been so suddenly darkened, and grant that the orphan son may live to be a source of joy and consolation to his bereaved mother and of blessing to his fellow-men. R.

Good Teaching.

APPENDED to a lecture delivered at the Royal Institution, by Dr. Whewell, on "The Influence of the History of Science upon Intellectual Education," is a specimen of teaching extracted from Plato. Those who have seen the specimen will not be sorry to have it referred to, and those to whom the reference may be new, will not regret having been led to examine the lecture and note for themselves. As we have a very different object to serve to what Plato had, we need not quote verbatim. Our business will be, not to show that those who do not know, have still in their minds a latent knowledge, but to note how a boy may be taught, as it were, to discover for himself, under the guidance of a competent teacher, the length of the side of a square whose area shall be double that of a given square.

Socrates asks: Do you know that this is a square?

Boy. Yes.

S. Why?

B. Because the four sides are equal, and the lines which are drawn across the middle from corner to corner, are equal.

S. May there be a square twice as great as this?

B. Yes.

[Thus far we have elicited knowledge already possessed, and refreshed the boy's memory.]

S. How long must one side of the new square be, that its area may be twice as great as that of the old square?

B. Twice as long as the side of the first square.

[Here we have brought out for us the error, a very common one, as you all know; now for teaching skill in making the boy detect his error.]

S. So you say the square on a double line will be the double of the first square? Now, let us fit to one end of the first square a second square which is equal to it. And let us fit two other squares of the same size to the sides of those two squares. Then what figure have we?

B. A square.

S. And how many times as great as the first square is it?

B. Four times as great.

S. Not twice as great, as you said?

B. No; it is four times as great.

[Thus is the error exposed, the boy being thoroughly convinced. Now for the teacher's guidance in the discovery of the new truth.]

S. If in this new square, which is made up of the old squares, we draw four diagonals, so as to cut off the four outside corners, each of these diagonals will cut each of these squares, how?

B. Into halves.

S. And you already know that these four diagonals will be equal, and will form another square?

B. Yes; I know.

S. And of what parts of the four squares is this inside square made up?

B. Of the four inside halves.

S. And four halves are equal to what?

B. To two wholes.

S. Then we have got a square that is equal to how many of the original squares?

B. To two of them.

S. And it is a square upon what line?

B. Upon the line that divides the original square into two halves.

S. That is, upon its diagonal?

B. Yes.

Surely no one can have failed to see that in eliciting the error, in correcting it, in discovering the truth, the boy's mind was being put through a course of discipline most salutary; and it will be hardly possible to doubt that the boy thus taught would be ready of himself to go over the steps of the proof again by himself, and to turn, at his leisure, to any other form of proof of the propositions that might fall within his reach. At the same time, the practical teacher will have suggested to his mind many other useful hints which this lesson could be made to furnish;—that this is a special case of the celebrated forty-seventh proposition, the right-angled triangle here being isosceles—that the square of a half is a fourth—the square on the double of a number is four times the square on that line or of that number—that a $(2a)^2$ is not $4a$ nor $2a^2$, but $4a^2$, &c., &c.,—and he will perceive also how connecting together these similar instances will give the boy a power of remembering them, too, such as mere rote-work can never confer.—*Exchange.*

From the Ohio Educational Monthly.
Oral Lessons in Geography.

THE first aim of elementary instruction in geography should be to develop those primary ideas which are essential to an intelligent study of maps and text-books. Instead of beginning with the subject, the primary teacher should start back of it, and thoroughly master all its approaches. In this work, the fact that a little child gains a clear and definite conception of first truths mainly from observation, should be constantly borne in mind as a guiding principle. Oral lessons in geography should open the eye of the child to discover truth rather than the ear of memory to receive it. They involve the principles of what is known as "object-teaching," and, hence, require rare skill on the part of the teacher.

It is our purpose to present a general outline of such lessons for the assistance of the teachers in our primary and district schools.

THE IDEA OF POSITION, OR PLACE.

"Where am I?" is the first of geographic truths, and hence should be the starting point of oral instruction. The young scholar must commence with himself and go outward to his surroundings. As soon as the terms right and left, front and back, are made familiar, the idea of position may be developed by asking the class to name objects in the school-room in front

of them, at their right-hand and at their left; by naming objects outside of the school-room, but in the immediate vicinity, in these several positions; by arranging different objects in the school-room around a central one and describing their position with reference to it and to each other; by removing all the objects but one, and asking the class to place the others in positions named by the teacher, etc.

A skillful teacher will find no difficulty in arranging a series of similar exercises which would interest a class of children for several days. The same exercise should be repeated on successive days until thoroughly mastered.

THE IDEA OF DIRECTION.

The previous exercise will reveal to the thoughtful teacher the fact that the full development of the idea of position necessitates an acquaintance with the *points of the compass*, or with the subject of direction. We must have points whose positions are unchangeable with reference to each other, otherwise the description of the relative position of two objects must involve the position of the observer or the one giving the information. To say that John stands at the right of Charles, means nothing unless we first know the direction of their faces.

The subject of direction is very important and may be easily taught by asking a class to point to the place where the sun rises, where it sets; to stand with their faces towards the sun when rising, when setting, at noon; to turn so as to face the same way their shadow falls, early in the morning, in the evening, *at noon*. When in this last position, tell them that their shadow always falls towards the north at noon. Tell them which way is south, north, east and west. Let them face the south, the north, the east and the west. Ask them to face successively the different points of the compass, extend both arms and name, in each instance, the point in front, at their back, towards the right and towards the left. Ask which side of the room is north, which east, which west, which south; on which side of the room is the map, the clock, the windows, the door; in which part is the stove, the teacher's desk, etc.

When the four cardinal points of the compass are practically understood, teach, in like manner, the intermediate points, north-east, south-east, north-west and south-west. To afford variety, pass from the school-room out to its surroundings, and ask the direction to prominent objects in the vicinity, and, also, the direction from one to the other. Now combine

the idea of motion with that of direction, by asking one scholar to walk from north to south, another from north-east to south-west, a third to tell in what direction he comes to school, a fourth which way he goes home, etc. In all of these answers, if the direction cannot be given with exactness by one of the eight points now learned, let the word *nearly* be used, as, "nearly north-east." It will be well also to ask the direction from some particular object to another, neither of which is at the moment visible to the scholar.

Next pass to the direction of lines, fences, streams, etc. Let two boys stand in opposite parts of the room and stretch a string between them, each giving its direction; require them to stand so that the string shall extend in given directions; ask for the direction of the aisles, long benches, cracks in the floor, fences in the vicinity, the streets, nearest stream, the ridge, etc.

In these exercises the teacher should aim to have the children *do something*. Each exercise should be repeated, always in a manner to interest, until the object of it is secured. The teacher should constantly remember that what is very easy and simple to her *may be quite difficult to a little child*.

THE IDEA OF DISTANCE.

Let the scholars in the upper grades of our schools be required to give, in writing, the length or width of a slate or book, the length or width of the school-room, the height of a well-known tree, the width of the street, and the distance to five or six familiar objects in the neighborhood, and the ignorance on the subject of distance, thus manifested, will be surprising. Further, let them be required to draw lines an inch or a foot in length, and the results will show that a large proportion have no correct idea of these units of measure. And yet actual experiment establishes the fact that all this may be imparted to children at a very early age. The importance of such knowledge must be apparent. The fact that Mont Blanc is 15,664 feet high, gives no true conception of the actual height of this stupendous mountain until the scholar knows that this distance is about three miles, or three times the distance he or his classmate lives from the school house.

The first step in teaching this subject is to impart skill in judging of the relative length of objects. This may be done by holding up straws or strings of unequal length, by drawing lines upon the black-board, or by comparing other

objects of different lengths, and asking in each case which is the longest and which the shortest; by requiring lines to be drawn on the black-board and then divided into two or more equal parts; by placing a marble or a pebble at a certain distance from another object on the floor or on the table, and requiring other objects to be placed at the same distance in different directions.

The above exercises, which a skillful teacher can multiply almost indefinitely, should be succeeded by exercises in giving the length of these objects in inches, feet, yards, etc. For this purpose, each school-room should be furnished with an inch-rule, a foot-rule, a yard-stick and a tape-line. A short exercise each day in guessing at the length of lines drawn on the black-board, the length and width of books, slates, desks, window frames, etc., and then testing the correctness of results by actual measurement, will soon enable quite small children to measure short distances with the eye very accurately. They should be made familiar with an inch-rule before using a foot-rule.

In passing from the measurement of objects within the school-room to the estimate of distances outside, great pains should be taken to give a correct idea of a rod and a mile. This should be preceded by numerous questions as to the relative distance of different objects from the school-house and from the homes of the scholars. Those objects whose distance can be easily measured by the scholars and be expressed in rods, should be first dwelt upon. The exercises should be continued until the class can readily name one or more objects in different directions at the distance of one mile, two miles, a half a mile, etc.

We digress to remark that the above exercises may be used with interest and profit even in our High Schools and Academies. Great pains should also be taken to translate the "dry figures" of Geography and other kindred studies into vivid conceptions. The reports of our naval battles afford interesting lessons in distance and may be used for this purpose with great profit. In the recent repulse of our gun-boats on the James River, for example, the *Gallena* opened fire on Fort Darling at the distance of six hundred yards. How far is this? At how much greater distance did our mortar-boats engage Island No. 10?

The method of imparting other primary ideas *must be deferred for a future paper*. We have *now only space to add*, that such exercises as

the above have great value in a primary school in sharpening the wits of children, opening their eyes, quickening and strengthening their judgment. The time taken from lessons, by thus spending a few moments each half day, will be more than made up by increased life and vigor both in study and recitation.

That the teacher may be successful in awakening proper interest in such lessons, special preparation for each exercise is indispensable. The mere copying of the above meagre course of instruction will not answer. The teacher must make each lesson her own, modifying and adapting it to the capacities of her scholars.

From the Independent.
Our Schools—Their Needs.

It has already very frequently been observed, that if there had been at the South such a common school system as that of any Northern State, the present rebellion would have been impossible. Perhaps no event in history ever exhibited in vaster proportions, or in a light so terribly clear, the immediate practical importance of education. And the consequent duty resting upon us to establish thorough school systems throughout the South instantly upon the termination of the war, would of course next demand discussion, if that department of effort were not shut to the National Government.

No careful student of educational history or literature has failed to note in both the singularly large proportion of mere theory, as compared with established recorded results of approved practice. The number of philosophies, sciences, arts, experiments, and methods in education, rivals that of theology; and, doubtless, for a similar reason. The subject-matter of both is so profound, their psychology and physiology so abstruse, the knowledge required to master and discuss them exhaustively so very great and so very difficult, that they stand, of necessity, among the very latest of things to be elucidated by human thought, and must, therefore, longer than almost any other departments of investigation, remain confused, empirically known, in want of the final analysis and fixation of principles and rules.

At the same time the difference must be remembered between theories and correct general views. For instance, to state a series of propositions, and logically deduce the general conclusion as a basis and central truth for a system of education, that "science is the knowledge

which is of the most worth"—as Herbert Spencer does—is pure theory. But to consider the whole state and aspect of our people here in the United States, and our schools, with a sufficient knowledge of them, and then to conclude that one of the things most needed to make their instruction more efficient is a good set of practical and practiced *directions how to teach*—that is, we believe, a correct general view. And few people of common sense, content to really do good, instead of talking about the good that might be done, will fail to see how much more prospect there is of accomplishing something under this latter statement than under the former.

What we desire in this article is to sketch the present condition and needs of the schools of the United States, more briefly than we could desire, but if possible in such a manner as to indicate the directions in which labor can be at present best bestowed.

The actual present condition and needs of our schools as a whole, may, we believe, be very intelligently stated.

The things to be considered may be listed—without any claim to exhaustiveness or symmetrical classification—as children, parents, teachers; state systems, state school funds, other support; houses and apparatus; text-books; course of study for children, course of study for teachers; and methods of discipline and of instruction.

We do not here discuss the barbarian or schoolless portion of the United States, but only the Free States. In them we find that the children, the raw material or subject-matter for the operation of the schools, are on the whole remarkably good material; quick-witted, fond of learning, teachable and orderly, to a degree far above the human average.

The parents, the supporting constituency of the schools, are, generally speaking, willing to have their children well taught; but they feel too little active sympathy in the work. Their interest in schools is however slowly increasing, becoming wider, quicker and more intelligent.

The teachers, the professional agents in education, are quite as well endowed by nature as the children under their charge. No better class of raw material for instructors could be desired. They are, as a whole, quick-minded, intelligent, faithful and judicious.

The systems by which the States and their people supervise and administer the schools, vary in many points; but they agree in leaving

most of the responsibility and most of the power to the towns and their districts, according to the fundamental American principle of the subdivision of government; and in administering the very mild and light authority of the State, through a board of officers, and through one executive agent under that board, who, if he is wise and energetic enough, seldom fails to command their hearty support in his plans and labors. In short, the public-school system is the best in the world for our self-governing and intelligent populations.

The permanent school funds are quite as large as they ought to be, and in some cases decidedly too large. Thus, it is now beyond doubt or controversy that the (proportionally) great Connecticut School Fund, so long and so proudly boasted and admired, has, in its actual operation, been a millstone about the neck of educational progress in that State. The reason is plain. The fund alone will pay a low rate of teachers' wages. And by a natural consequence among a population of economical hard-working farmers, that fact effectually prevented the towns and districts from raising any additional money; and thus incompetent teachers were employed, and schools decayed. The State fund should be made a stimulus, not a narcotic. It should help the towns and districts on the express and exclusive condition that they tax themselves handsomely first, and in proportion as they do so. This plan does in fact now prevail in most of the States, and with eminent success.

The amount of taxes, besides the incomes of permanent funds, is not so liberal as it ought to be, but still is, under the circumstances, creditably large, and is increasingly so. In some individual States and towns, the amounts thus self-imposed are wonderfully great.

The school houses, grounds, inside fittings and fixtures, have been very greatly improved during the last thirty years, and are still steadily improving. Their average condition, though far from being perfect, is quite as hopeful and encouraging as any other educational instrumentality whatever.

The text-books used in our schools are various almost to infinity; and, with proper professional attainments and habits in the teachers, would be found quite adequate to the requirements of the young people. School-books—though the doctrine be most heretical and unpalatable to our enterprising friends, the publishers—are among the very least important mat-

ters concerned with schools. That is to say, *sufficient* school-books are among the things most easily obtained.

The courses of study for pupils and teachers—including the methods used by the latter; their professional modes of proceeding—alone remain to be considered. And this we believe to be far the most defective side of our American school system, and a very defective one. A complete discussion of this question would open a broad range of subjects; the character of American mind; the exigencies of American life; the relation of our home-training to our school-training; the historical development of our school *curriculum*. But at this time we can barely indicate reasons and state conclusions.

The course of study in our schools is sadly wanting in determinateness and regularity. It would not do to insist upon making all the pupils of our schools use just so many days, at so many pages a day, in going through their books; but some system of study, having some sanction of public opinion or authority, to lift all pupils constantly toward a more and more thorough and extensive average or fixed quantum of attainment, would necessarily be very useful.

Oral instruction is a means which should be used far more extensively than at present. The teacher's eye, the teacher's voice, hold and sway the pupils, precisely as the orator's eye and voice hold and sway his audience. When the instructor meets the scholar's eye and talks to him, living power passes over to the child. But a book is dead; and deader of all to children. A real teacher needs no book. A real teacher cares very little which geography or which arithmetic his class uses. Especially with the younger classes, the common method should be exactly reversed, and instead of getting their knowledge out of the book—or trying to—and being helped (perhaps) by the teacher, the children should receive their knowledge from the teacher, while the book should be entirely subordinate. Thus only can the teacher fulfill his office; and if this be called laborious and exhausting, we answer, It is right, however!

And in order to enable the teacher to do this, we very exceedingly need a system of methodology; a system which shall furnish the teacher with correct knowledge how to teach; what, for instance, shall be his very first question to beginners in arithmetic; what their answer might probably be; what second question might follow; and soon. Not as an invariable set of

catechisms, but as an instance of the right sort of conversation. And this instruction for the teacher should in the same spirit, but with the proper variations, cover the ground of the whole course he is to teach, and more too—just as company officers are commanded to be taught not only company drill but battalion drill also. (Our schools for instructing teachers are advancing in this department; but it is still their greatest want, and they are extremely deficient in it. As a rule, the instruction given to teachers in this country is almost entirely in knowledge, not in the mode of communicating it. A startling error; for it is scarcely an exaggeration to say that it is less important how much the teacher knows, than how well he knows how to teach it.

As one important aid in their duties, there should be prepared a manual or manuals for teachers. A set of proper books of method for teachers, even a very moderately good one, would do more to improve the quality of instruction in our schools, and to inspire them with healthy intellectual life, than a whole deluge of absolutely perfect school-books. It is very true that the editions would be smaller, and the inducements to publishers to undertake them or to introduce them would be less than for school-books. Indeed, the use of such manuals would tend directly to injure the market for school-books, by rendering the teacher more independent of books, their defects and differences. But that is not a question which concerns the friends of schools.

It will be observed that in this brief summary, we conclude that the intellectual subject-matter, constituency, and agencies of our schools are good; the pecuniary means sufficient; the systems of management excellent, and the accommodations respectable; and that the defects of the system may all be classed under one term: Insufficient knowledge and practice of the right science and art of instruction.

THERE are as good horses drawing in carts as in coaches; and as good men are engaged in humble employments as in the highest.

EXPERIENCE, like the stern-lights of a ship, show the track we have passed.

POOR authors set luxurious tables for others, while starving at their own.

DOCTOR DIET, Doctor Activity and Dr. Mercuryman cure more diseases than all rest of the Faculty.

From the Pennsylvania School Journal.
Leaves from the Diary of a School Teacher.

March 10. One of those indispensable institutions, a school director, visited us to-day. He had a kind word and pleasant smile for all; and his presence did much good. Just being initiated in the mysteries of office, this was his first visit. A gentleman of education himself, he viewed our common schools intelligently. His words were full of hope. Never did the office of school director appear to us of such importance, as when we listened to his suggestions, and the sound educational views he was pleased to give us. "He spoke as one having authority"—and left the impression on our minds that he meant all he said. *Give us educated, energetic school directors, and we will give you good schools.*

March 11th and 12th. Nothing unusual happened during these two days. The blustering, March winds sighing around Wild Wood, were in strange contrast with the quiet scenes within the school-room.

March 13th. "The house is haunted, teacher"—"the 'Spooks' have been about"—"what can the matter be?" Such was the language of some little fellows who accompanied me to the school house this morning. And sure enough, there were strange things to be seen in the school room!!! A pyramid of "stove wood" reached from floor to ceiling!! The profiles of my pupils were comically drawn on their slates and hung around the walls. The outlines of my own unpretending self were artistically drawn on the black-board, and on my desk was found an advertisement for an "AMBROTYPE SALOON." The pupils' books were found "on the loft," they having got there through a trap-door in the ceiling. On opening my desk, an old fashioned "goose" flapped out, and hurried to the door!! What could all this mean? Things were "put to rights" and school called. The pupils knew nothing of these strange proceedings. Our plan was to "wait and see." We employed a few moments, however, in telling our pupils that "spooks" had nothing to do with it. Parents who talk to children about "haunted houses" and "ghosts," filling the mind with apprehensions, are guilty of a great wrong.

March 14th. My pupils are worthy of much praise to-day: they have recited nobly, and have given me such strong evidence of their affection, that they will be endeared to me while life lasts. The more a teacher loves his

pupils, the more will they love him. Kindness begets kindness. *I am fully convinced that the rod—that "relic of barbarism"—can safely be dispensed with in the government of children.*

March 16th. Dull, damp, and—Monday. Two of our little school-fellows left us to-day,—their parents about to remove to the great West. We will miss them in the class on the morrow. There is a fountain of sympathy in the youthful heart!!! Their "good-bye" to the school was touching: there was eloquence in it. Human sympathy is an ennobling trait, and the teacher that nurtures and develops it in the hearts of children does a good work.

March 17th. A solution to the all-absorbing question—who desecrated our school-room?—was found to-day. The "big boys" of a neighboring school—and Madame Rumor said "their teacher had a hand in it"—becoming envious of the fair reputation enjoyed by the pupils of our own pleasant school, sought to degrade us by their vandal acts. They had heard that our school had been "taken" by the artist; while their own interesting physiognomies were not transferred to the "polished plate,"—hence the advertisement for an "Ambrotype Saloon" was left on our desk. What did we do about it? We simply did nothing,—save endeavoring to impress upon our pupils' minds the virtue of forbearance.

March 18th. A look of sober seriousness rests upon many a pupil's face this morning. The closing of the school is drawing near. The bare mention of this fact saddens all Wild Wood.

March 19th. We prepared to-day "tokens of remembrance," to be distributed among our pupils at the close of the school. We well remember when we were a school-boy, how our heart was set throbbing when "our teacher" handed us a "merit mark" and bade us "good bye." We received it through our tears—how carefully we preserved it!!! Years have passed since then—years of sunshine and shadow, of joy and sorrow, yet that teacher is vividly imprinted in the "book of memory;" and even now, when we look upon that faded memento, the tear, unbidden, falls from the eye. It is a wand by which the "old school house" is reproduced: it uncovers the turfy resting places of school-mates who have long since rested in Mother Earth. "Lord, keep our memory green."

March 20th. This is my last working day in school. My pupils will recite their last regular lesson to me to-day. How swiftly the days

have passed by. It seems but yesterday, almost, since we first met in Wild Wood.

March 22d. Met this morning at the usual hour, and commenced decorating our school-room for "Examination Day." Busy hands and kind hearts were there, and the work went bravely on. Great green wreaths hung in festoons around the walls, and artificial flowers formed a substitute for what the early spring denied us. "A thing of beauty is a joy forever." Youth loves the beautiful: it is found everywhere on God's green earth. The school-boy's eye sparkles with intense pleasure as it gazes on the glories of a bright spring morning. Take wreaths, flowers, sunshine, love, into the school-room and we'll feel all the better for it.

March 24th. Rain! rain!! rain!!! and this "examination day." Well, it rained in Noah's time—but, then, he was n't a school teacher. The clouds are breaking away, the birds sing again, and nature looks all the lovelier for the *douche*. We will have a pleasant time yet. * *

This has been the crowning day for Wild Wood. Fathers and mothers were present to witness the proficiency of their children. All seemed pleased—all seemed to enjoy themselves. We had no failures to-day. There is no necessity for a failure in school. Many applauded, none censured. We closed at a late hour in the evening, but not until our essays were read, our songs sung, and our valedictory spoken.

March 25th. One meeting more at Wild Wood, for a brief period only. We meet to take down the wreaths, rearrange the furniture and collect our books. This done and our labors were o'er. The "good-bye" was spoken; a moment more, and I stood alone! My pupils had gone! My school had closed! May God bless those dear pupils. The untrodden path of the future lies before them. A few years more—only a few years more, and where will they be? Out on the broad ocean of life, battling with the billows and obstacles to be encountered there. Will they ever forget Wild Wood—its rippling stream, its hills on either side, and the green lawn "that lies betwixt." Will they forget the accustomed seat, the blithe companion, the pleasant scenes? Oh, no! the storms of life may beat about their pathway,—the period of their earthly pilgrimage may extend to "three score years and ten." Still memory will be true.

And will I forget you, pupils of my own teaching? Never: although 'twas hard to dissolve the golden chain that connected teacher

and taught, yet will I never forget you. There is a great High School above. May you and I graduate into that school, where all is happiness and joy and peace forever.

Gender in Grammar.

THE use of the term, "Neuter Gender," in parsing, has the sanction of a venerable antiquity. Shall I disturb the nerves of some retired "old foggy," if I dare to question the propriety of its use in its general application?

Webster defines gender to mean "sex." "In grammar, a distinction of sex, as male or female." Has the word gender, then, any application whatever, except to designate the male or female? When we apply it to any noun not possessing sex, we fall into a gross inconsistency, and undertake to mend it by prefixing an adjective, "Neuter," which directly contradicts our application of the term gender. In other words, we class such nouns as books, &c., among the sexes, and in the same breath say it has no sex.

I find teachers to whom I have spoken upon this subject, laying great stress upon the definition, "distinction of sex." Very well, where there is sex, make the distinction, but where there is no sex, I see no opportunity for making this distinction. I have long taught my pupils to avoid the application of gender, except where gender exists.

"Common Gender," is another term found in all our grammars. Will some one define it, or rather give us a specimen of the genus to which it belongs? Because a noun may be either masculine or feminine, does it follow, as the term legitimately implies, that it is a mixture of both?

If it is said that the word *bird*, for example, is a term applied to both sexes, I reply that this is not what is said in applying the term Common Gender to it in parsing. It is simply saying that *that* bird, the one parsed, is a mixture of the two sexes.

Why not avoid the use of both these terms by entirely avoiding the application of gender in the first instance, and in the second by saying what is true, that the noun considered may be masculine or feminine? c.

—*Ohio Educational Monthly.*

THE preëminence of man over the other living creatures of this earth consists in this: that he can recognize something higher and better than himself.—ARISTOTLE.

The Laws of Childhood.*

THE merit of the Pestalozzian system is that, recognizing the character of children, it adapts itself to this, doing invariably and systematically what all good parents and teachers do often and intuitively.

Pestalozzi recognized the nature of a child as threefold—physical, mental and moral. He demanded that this nature should be aided in developing itself simultaneously, harmoniously and progressively. He noted the threefold characteristics of this threefold nature, and said, "The chief characteristic of a child's physical nature is activity; of his intellectual nature, love of knowledge; of his moral nature, sympathy. No educational system can suit him unless it works by these."

I. Activity is a law of childhood. Its abuse produces restlessness, love of mischief, etc. It were not too much to demand that the number of hours devoted by growing boys and girls to physical exercise, in some shape or other, should equal those devoted to intellectual exercises. This the teacher can not secure. She can, however, insist (as a necessary condition of work) that her pupils shall have two recesses in the morning and one in the afternoon, each twenty minutes long; that during the time of recess they be not constrained to quietude—for children, unless asleep, can not rest without they play, and they cannot play without making a noise; that they shall sit and stand alternately; that they shall have physical exercise between each lesson, unless singing or recess intervene, and that the remainder of the time be honestly occupied in school work.

It is really a sad sight to see young children permitted neither to work nor play, but kept in their seats for two or three hours under pretence of studying. Were schools instituted for the purpose of training little ones to the love of mischief and to idleness, they could hardly adopt better means to secure such an end. To divide a school into two sections, to take each alternately, and, while teaching one, to provide the other with something to do (the doing of which is to be tested,) as copying printed columns of words, arranging patterns of forms or colors, weighing, measuring, working number exercises on the slates or blackboards, drawing the school-room to scale, reproducing

on their own slates lessons in spelling or in language. All this requires not only the necessary apparatus, but *training, energy* and moral influence on the part of the teacher. It is easier, to be sure, to remain in one's seat, calling up one class at a time, and hearing these read and spell in turn, while the rest are commanded "to keep studying."

Now that another method of keeping school is introduced consistently with the greater energy expended by teachers and children, the number of school hours ought to be diminished. It has been amply proved that the children of the Home and Colonial Schools, London, now attending school during five hours, make greater progress than they formerly did in six.

I shall not be surprised to find the number of hours reduced to four. Edwin Chadwick, J. Currie, and other educators, who can speak as having authority, declare that more than four hours in the day can not advantageously be spent in school by children less than eight years of age.

Even in the case of elder children, I should not be inclined to add to the four hours; but I would diminish, and at length dispense with the intervening physical exercises, recesses, etc. Gymnastics and drilling are good, but these can have another time set apart for them; and as soon as the scholar is able to work alone, he should be required to spend at first twenty minutes, and ultimately, perhaps, two hours in the performance of an appointed task, not merely in preparation for recitation, but in writing exercises, and in the reproduction of the oral lessons he receives from his teacher, &c.

To make these oral lessons worth recording, indeed to insure them as being of any value at all, they must be well prepared. Much, if not all, the time gained by the teacher will be devoted to this. In Germany or England, a trained teacher (and untrained teachers are not recognized) would no more think of addressing her scholars without preparation, than a lecturer his audience, or a minister his congregation.

II. *Love of knowledge* is a law of childhood. The abuse of this produces idle and impertinent curiosity. It is a simple fact, that the appetite of a child for knowledge is as keen as his appetite for food. If we say we find it otherwise, it is because we give him words when he knows not what they express, signs when he knows not what they symbolize—the husk instead of the kernel; or if, indeed, the kernel is there, he can not get at it through the shell. The max-

*A paper prepared by Miss M. E. M. Jones, of London, and read before the Educational Convention at Oswego, New York, in February last.

ims laid down by Pestalozzi for the mental training of children are as follows :

" 1. Reduce every subject to its elements. One difficulty at a time is enough for the mind of a child, and the measure of information is not what you can give, but what he can receive.

" 2. Begin with the senses. Never tell a child what he can discover for himself.

" 3. Proceed step by step. Take not the order of the subject, but the order of nature.

" 4. Go from the known to the unknown, from the signification to the symbol, from the example to the rule, from the simple to the complex."

Formerly we reversed all these rules. Our usual plan of teaching children to read and spell is a good example of their violation. Let us, on the contrary, follow these rules, and we ascend

From Form to Geometry ;

" Place to Geography ;

" Weight to Mechanics ;

" Size to Proportion in Drawing and Architectural Designs ;

" Number to Arithmetic and Algebra ;

" Color to Chromatography ;

" Plants to Botany ;

" Animals to Zoölogy ;

" Human Body to Physiology ;

" Objects to Mineralogy, Chemistry, etc. ;

" Actions to Arts and Manufactures ;

" Language to Grammar.

With reference to this ascent, Pestalozzi noted, First, the order in which the faculties are developed with respect to one another ; and,

Secondly, the order in which each develops itself with respect to its objects :

1. First, the Perceptive Faculty ;

Secondly, the Conceptive Faculty ;

Thirdly, the Reasoning Faculty ;

2. In the exercise of the Perceptive faculty, the perception of likeness precedes the perception of difference, and the perception of difference perceptions of order and proportion.

In the exercise of the Conceptive faculty, concepts of things physical precede concepts of things imaginary, and concepts of things imaginary concepts of things metaphysical.

In the exercise of the Reasoning faculty, the power of tracing effect from cause is based, chiefly, on the perception of order ; the power of tracing analogies on the perception of likeness ; the judgment on the perception of difference.

III. Sympathy is a law of childhood. Pestalozzi argued that young people cannot be gov-

erned by appeals to conscience, veneration, or the love of the beautiful, because in them these sentiments are not yet developed. Still less are they to be governed by the excitements of emulation, as commonly understood, or of fear. True, the principle of emulation exists in the child, and a wise teacher will appeal to it, not with reference to his class-fellows, but to his task. The lesson, and not the schoolmate, is to be overcome. The latter is to be recognized, not as an antagonist, but as a fellow-worker. The prize of success is not for *one*, but for *all*.

The principle of fear, too, exists in the child. It is right that he should be afraid to incur the displeasure of his teacher ; but the fear of bodily pain merely is the lowest of all motives. It is hardly possible to cultivate the conscience of a child who is brought up under its influence ; for, if he do right from fear alone, he will certainly do wrong whenever he judges he has a chance of doing it undetected. This every one knows.

Concerning fear and emulation, as employed by unwise teachers, Pestalozzi wrote, " Moral diseases are not to be counteracted by moral poisons." He maintained that very young children were to be governed by *sympathy* ; that the teacher can and does communicate her own spirit to the scholars. " Do and be," said he, " what you wish your children to do and be." " Work with the will, not against it."

Furthermore he showed that this sympathy, as a motive to action, must be gradually superseded by the *rule of right*, so soon as the children are able to recognize and apply the latter ; for all good government tends to self-government — all good education, in childhood, tends to self-education.

May the children of our schools progress from suitable impressions to befitting habits ; from good feelings to right principles ; from submission to the impulse of fear, to obedience to the dictates of conscience ; from love of friends, to the love of God.

RULES FOR READING.—Read the best books which wise and sensible persons advise, and study them with reflection and examination. Read with a firm determination to make use of all you read. Do not, by reading, neglect a more important duty. Do not read with a view of making a display of your reading. Do not read too much at a time. Reflect on what you read, and let it be moderately enjoyed and well digested.

Educational Intelligence.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to the PUBLISHERS OF THE SCHOOLMASTER Providence.

From the Providence Evening Press, June 17.
Annual Meeting of the Alumni Association of the New England Yearly Meeting Boarding School.

The Fourth Annual Meeting of this Association convened agreeable to adjournment at Aquidneck Hall, Newport, yesterday afternoon at 2 o'clock, the President, MOSES A. CARTLAND, in the chair.

The Executive Committee and the Treasurer severally presented their annual reports.

The following were appointed a committee on nominations:

Jonathan L. Slocum, Timothy K. Earle, A. K. Sunley, Benj. Buffum, W. S. Haines, Samuel B. Hunsey.

They reported the following list of officers, who were elected:

President—Moses A. Cartland, Lee, N. H.

Vice Presidents at Large—Samuel Boyd Tobey, M. D., Providence, R. I.; John Stanton Gould, Hudson, N. Y.; Jonathan L. Slocum, Providence, R. I.; Alden Sampson, Manchester, Maine; Charles R. Tucker, New Bedford, Mass; Samuel J. Gummere, Haverford, Penn; Wm. Boyce, Lynn, Mass; Oliver K. Earle, Worcester, Mass.; Wm. H. Gove, Ware, N. H.; John Wm. Mason, New York, N. Y.; Benjamin Barker, Olean, N. Y.; Charles O. Shove, Fall River, Mass; Nathan Southwick, New York, N. Y.; Thomas B. Church, Grand Rapids, Mich.

Recording Secretary—George L. Collins, M. D., Providence, R. I.

Corresponding Secretary—Daniel C. Baker, Lynn, Mass.

Treasurer—Thomas E. Steere, Providence, R. I.

Counsellors—Samuel Austin, Joseph Cartland, Albert K. Smiley, A. M., Wm. T. Grinnell, Henry B. Metcalf, Benjamin Buffum, Providence, R. I.; Charles F. Coffin, Lynn, Mass; Edmund Chase, Fall River, Mass; Charles Taber, New Bedford, Mass; Edward Earle, Worcester, Mass; Pliny Earle, M. D., Leicester, Mass; Peter M. Neil, Lynn, Mass; Henry R. Pinkham, Pawtucket, R. I.

The Executive Committee presented the name of William M. Rodman as Honorary Member of the Association, and he was elected.

Remarks were made by Jonathan L. Slocum and Albert Sunley in reference to preserving the records of deceased members. The subject was referred to the Executive Committee.

The memorial of Emeline Aldrich, former teacher of the school, was read.

Adjourned until evening.

ORATION AND POEM.

A public meeting was held in the same place last evening. The hall was crowded. The orator and poet both discharged their duties in so acceptable a manner, and the literary feast was so excellent, that

the anniversary was admitted by all parties to have been one of the most successful that have yet been held.

The oration was delivered by JOHN STANTON GOULD, of Hudson, New York, his subject being, "The Quaker Idea of Education." After a highly ornate and imaginative introduction, in which the memories of *auld lang syne* were rehearsed most beautifully and effectively, the speaker remarked that "with all these glad memories there mingles another thought like a fundamental note in harmony. It is a tender feeling of love and gratitude to our *Alma Mater*. We feel that it has been good for us that we once nestled lovingly in her bosom; that the sweetest efflorescence and the richest fruitage of our lives have had their origin in germs which she has implanted within us." He proposed to consider the source from which she sprung, and the foundation upon which she had been laid.

The Institution at Providence was founded by men whose hearts and minds had been thoroughly imbued with those principles of Christianity which had been redeveloped after the long night of mediæval apostasy by Fox. It was their darling object to give a concrete expression to their ideal of true Christian education. The speaker thereupon proceeded to unfold this ideal as found in the fundamental principles of the Quaker theology. He gave an extended biographical sketch of George Fox, with an exposition of the system of religious faith of which he was the founder, and an account of its first revelation to his own mind.

Fox's views respecting education, as deduced from these doctrines, were as follows:

I. The primary object of the educator should be to engraft the young soul into Christ. The truest Christian must necessarily be the wisest philosopher.

II. The education of each individual must be special, not general, training each for his particular mission in life.

III. Education is a religious act. We must not regulate our studies by caprice, fancy, or ambition, but must be wholly guided by the stern dictates of duty.

IV. The teacher must strive industriously to discover the scope of his pupils' abilities and train them in the direction of practical usefulness.

V. Ignorance was to be preferred to error. Hasty generalization, misstatements of fact and one-sided views of truth were to be religiously avoided.

The speaker then proceeded to trace in the minutes of the first Monthly Meetings from 1690 downwards, the rise of the denominational schools in Rhode Island.

The first movement made in the Yearly Meeting resulted in an attempt at the establishment of a school for the more liberal education of the youth of the Society. A room in the meeting house at Portsmouth was prepared for the reception of scholars, and the school was opened under the care of Isaac Lawton in the 11th month, 1784. This school discontinued in 1783. In the year 1814, Moses Brown offered

43 acres of his farm as a site for the institution. The fund at this time was \$9300. Friends contributed generally throughout the Yearly Meeting, and the buildings being completed, the school was opened on the first of 1st month, 1819. To Moses Brown, more than to any other man, must be awarded the honors of a pioneer in this great enterprise. David Buffum, of Newport, familiarly called Bishop Buffum, was one of his most efficient co-workers. The very mention of this good man's name awakens a host of pleasant memories, sweet as the gales that blow from the fields of Arabian spicery. The speaker's personal reminiscences of this venerated patriarch in his domestic, social and religious life were some of the most pleasing portions of his address, and were graphically related. He concluded as follows:

"From the established principles of the Society of Friends, and from the known character of its founders, it is plain that they intended to establish an institution where ethical teaching should be largely mingled with physical and intellectual instruction, in which show should always give way to substance.

How far the institution has been successful in accomplishing the designs of the founders, those who know us best are the most competent to judge.

If we feel that our path in life has been made smoother, and that we have been enabled through its influence to escape some of the rocks and quicksands which have proved fatal to others, we can best discharge our debt of gratitude by extending the benefit of her principles in the culture of our own families, and in other circles where our influence may extend."

Hon. WM. M. RODMAN was then introduced as the cousin of the orator, and the poet of the evening. He announced as his theme, "Age and Youth; or, Life in its Reciprocal Influences."

This was the most agreeable episode in the whole anniversary exercises. Words would fail us to describe the pleasure which it afforded, and the interest with which it was received. Seldom, indeed, have culture and genius laid upon the altar of the Muse an offering richer in all those elements which give to the finer sort of poetry its captivating charm, and fit it to act so powerfully upon the emotions of the sensitive nature. Of the manifold excellencies of this effusion, the specimens given below are a sufficient evidence. But as the portions which we are constrained to omit, contain yet other perfections of a somewhat different order, it is but just to say that for its refinement of sentiment, depth of poetic feeling, touching allusions to fond and early memories, happy unison with the sentiments natural to the hour, skillful weaving together of the associations which enter largely into the social enjoyments of such a festival, impassioned outbreathings of reverence for, and sympathy with, the great and glorious in nature, it constituted an intellectual feast of which it was indeed a privilege to partake. Every ear and mind that recognizes and enjoys the beautiful, (and the hearty applause testified that there were many

such in the audience,) was enchained by its melodious rhythm, its gems of fancy, its aptly-chosen metaphors and perfect adaptation to the occasion.

After a few festive measures alluding to the object of the association, and to the memories which the anniversary recalls, the poet refers to the former teachers of the school, and celebrates the praise of "days lang syne" as follows:

Look round you now, and where are they
Who led you first in wisdom's way;
And who with love and gentle rule,
Calm empire held in all the school?
Some have gone hence, and some are here,
This festal hour with smiles to cheer.
And should they their experience tell,
And ring the chimes on mem'ry's bell,
Though all secede, I think that fun
Around this hall would sportive run,
And loud with frolic voice proclaim,
At least one loved old teacher's name.

Time counts our years, and crowns us old;
But does the heart with age grow cold?
Answer me now, ye honor'd few,
Who've coursed the years of manhood through;
Answer me, grave and reverend sire;
Burns dimmer now affection's fire,
Than when at first the flame divine,
Kindled and warmed that heart of thine?
The body 'neath decay may fall,
Dark sorrow all life's pathway pall;
But firm and true, all change among,
Love ever keeps the spirit young!
Then let the circling years unfold
Our bodies with a vesture old;
But let us to our hearts be true,
And dally drink life's morning dew,
And garland all our path with flowers,
From childhood's vales and sunlit bowers;
Then youth and age shall joyous blend,
And smile as one 'til time shall end.

An eloquent eulogium on Whittier:

"Who sung your first alumni song,"

is introduced at this point, and its fervor and beauty called forth spontaneous applause.

The poet then commences the following impassioned hymn to nature:

How beauteous is this world of ours,
Curtained with light, festooned with flowers.
Unknown to Art's submissive aid,
By power divine its walls were laid,
By power divine it perfect stood,
And God, our God, pronounced it good!
Its starlit dome on high He hung,
Its orbs of light His fiat swung,
It now as then in beauty stands,
The work of His Almighty hands,
Grand, beauteous, vast, erect, sublime.
Undim'd by age, unwrecked by time!
And when the morn with Orient beams,
O'er mount and vale in beauty streams,
What glory all the landscape fills,
When light auroral robes the hills,
And through the mist-veiled valleys dim,
Soft twittering wings its choral hymn;

From blazing sphere, to sunless clod,
We see, we feel, that all is God!
And yet this earth, so beautiful grand,
Is but an atom in His hand;
Less than the tiniest mite that flies
A visioned speck to mortal eyes;
But still His love's omniscient power
Cradles in love the humblest flower;
Directs the sunbeam warm to rest
In and around the sparrow's nest;
And watchful hears the faintest prayer
Which craves through faith a Father's care!

The lyric strain continues, in varying measure,
adapted to the nature of the sentiment, to speak of
the pleasure which age enjoys in sporting with youth,
and of children as sunshine of the household, and
winds up with an account of a chowder feast:

The merchant seeks his mansion,
His heart all discontent;
A storm has swept the brokers' board—
The banks increased per cent.
His drafts protested, from abroad
Are back to him returned.
His model mill, but half insured,
Has been this morning burned.
He dons his hat, he rubs his brow,
He ruffles up his hair,
And to and fro he walks the room
A picture of despair!
When all at once, a toddling thing
Is clinging to his knee;
A little sinless, hisping child,
From every sorrow free.
She says "papa," with earnest look,
And to him closer clings,
And round his neck with childish love,
Her cherub arm she flings!
And shouting to her mother,
Loud rings her sweet "ha ha,"
And clinging closer to his neck,
She kisses dear papa!
What cares he then for cotton,
Or banks, or rates per cent.?
All these are banished from his heart,
When all is calm content!
The storm is changed to sunshine,
His sadness into smiles;
His fever'd brain is soothed to rest
By childhood's winning wiles;
They are the little wild-flowers,
Which bloom on hills and lawns,
Which blend their leaves and fragrance sweet
With life's corroding thorns!
I love the sun and ocean,
The gladness and the roar;
But I love the fun of childhood
Ten thousand times the more!

Then, if when dawn the summer hours,
And Flora decks the earth with flowers,
The ocean's marge, and laurelled glade,
Invite us to the cooling shade.
Let us the mirthful law obey,
Thrust care aside, and stop to play;
With childhood frolic, sport and run,
And deck our brows with leaves of fun;
Then shall our hearts be free from pain,
And all be boys and girls again!

O! isn't it a real joy, if only for a day,
From city life and business care to wholly steal away;
To be all free from Banks and Courts, their trammels,
tricks and shams,
And then to roll upon the grass, and feast on fish and
clams.

The thought of it bewilders, such pure exquisite bliss
As centres in a chowder feast, amid a scene like this,
Where all is free as boyhood, untrammelled by a care,
Abroad in Nature's open fields and fan'd by ocean air,
The Orthodox Utopia, from earnest labor won,
When man can rest on mother earth, like pumpkins in
the sun;

And these, like them, unconscious, no human ill to
know,
And only sleep, and wake and sleep, and vegetate
and grow.

Let Yorkers sing of Rockaway and Saratoga's rills,
And Hampshire's sons lift up their voice to praise
their granite hills;

Still, yield to me this rock-ribb'd shore, remote from
inland shams,

And give to me an honest bake of good Rhode Island
clams.

From grave to gay, one roundelay,
Is Nature's choral chime;
Now blithe as fairies dance on flowers,
When summer moonlight robes the hours,
Now solemn, grand, sublime.
Now like the voice of Ocean lone,
With singing-sounding spirit tone,
Now like a jocund lyre—
When mirthful fingers sweep the strings,
And fun exultant from it flings,
Glad songs from every wire.

The poem concludes with an invocation for peace:

Oh, God of peace, before Thy throne,
In humble faith we bend this day:
And breathe to Thee one fervent prayer,
That Thou'lt from blood our armies spare,
And shield with Thy protecting care
Our brothers now from us away.

The sacred Dove, when lulled the storm,
Bore to the ark the olive spray;
And now amid the storm of war,
Send forth Thy spirit-bird once more,
And let it to our ark restore

The olive branch of peace, we pray. . . .

For this let us labor, for this let us pray;
For this let our lives be offered this day;
And sweet, like the song of spirit-like bird,
Let the kind voice of woman be everywhere heard;
(Heard as you hoped to have heard it at play,
In sweet warbling cadence soft chaunting a lay
To glad with its music this festival day;) For tears of her spirit everywhere lave
The tablets which tell of the cross armored brave!
The star of the tempest, the vesture of light,
The rose of the desert, the rainbow of night,
The strength of our weakness, the pleasure of care,
The gladness of gloom, the bliss of despair,
The shield of the weak, the arm of the brave,
The tear of the tyrant, the smile of the slave,
A seraph all holy, she gladdens our way,
And garlands December with roses of May,
And shines the heart's star wherever we roam,
The beacon of truth, the angel of home!

A vote of thanks was unanimously passed to the orator and the poet, and a copy of both productions requested for publication.

AT THE FILLMORE HOUSE, after the exercises in Aquidneck Hall, there was a social reunion of the Alumni, with voluntary addresses. The most excellent humor prevailed, and in the recalling of playful reminiscences, the interchange of ready repartee, and in universal gaiety and sociality, the hours passed agreeably and imperceptibly away.

The speakers were Dr. Tobey, of Providence, Moses A. Cartland, Stephen A. Chase, J. S. Gould, Wm. M. Rodman and Pliny Earle. There was a very large gathering of the Alumni nearly filling the lower halls of the building. All enjoyed themselves finely.

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

Questions for the Examination of Applicants for Admission to New Bedford High School.

ARITHMETIC.

1. The Falls of Niagara have receded nearly 50 yards within the last 40 years. How long, at this rate, has it taken them to recede from Queens-town, 7 miles below their present site?

Suppose the Erie Canal to be 60 feet wide, and 6 feet deep, how many miles in length will it require to make one cubic mile of water?

3. A merchant sold flour at \$5.50 a barrel, and gained 10 per cent.; he afterwards sold the same kind of flour at \$6.25 a barrel. What per cent. did he gain at the latter price?

4. A line 244 feet in length will reach from the top of the walls of a fort, situated on the bank of a river, to its opposite side; the width of the river is 240 feet; what is the height of the walls of the fort?

5. On an acre of ground there were erected 21 buildings, occupying on an average 3 sq. rods, 112 ft. 8 in.; how much remained unoccupied?

6. What is the amount of \$185.26 in 2 years, 3 months, 11 days, at $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.?

7. Received as the amount of \$710 for 1 year, 2 months and 12 days, \$778.16. What was the rate per cent.?

8. A man having a field 30 rods square, sold 25 square rods to one of his neighbors, and 20 rods square to another. What is the value of the remainder at \$175 per acre?

9. If a cannon ball 6 inches in diameter weighs 32 lbs., what is the diameter of one weighing 12 lbs.?

10. If 14 casks of raisins, each weighing 125 lbs. be carried 6 miles for \$6.20, what will be the

cost of carrying 56 casks, each weighing 100 lbs., 66 miles?

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Define the following terms: Latitude, Longitude, Isthmus, Cape, Hemisphere.

2. What seas, gulfs and bays lie east and south of Asia?

3. Name the three mountain-systems which cross the United States, and describe each of them.

4. Name the eight States which border on the great American lakes.

5. Name five of the principal rivers of North and South America, and describe the Missouri.

6. Name and give the situation of the largest fresh water lake, the longest river, and the highest mountain in the world.

7. Through what waters would you pass in going from Cincinnati to St. Petersburg?

8. Which of the United States is most extensively engaged in manufactures? Which in commerce? Which has produced the most sugar? Which the most tobacco?

9. Name the principal forms of government in the world, and give an example of each.

10. Give the boundaries of Virginia, Indiana, Missouri, and the capitals of each.

HISTORY.

1. In what year was each of the following places settled: Plymouth, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Jamestown.

2. What was the cause of the French and Indian War; by what treaty was peace concluded; and what territory came into the possession of England by that treaty?

3. For what is the year 1492 remarkable? 1620? 1775? 1776? 1783?

4. What were the chief causes of our Revolutionary War?

5. What were the principal grounds on which the United States declared war against England in 1812?

6. What can you say of the origin and objects of the "Society of the Cincinnati"?

7. What can you tell of the battle of New Orleans in 1815, and its results.

8. Name the thirteen original States.

9. Give an account of the treachery of Arnold, and of the death of Andre.

10. What is an Embargo? A Blockade? A Tariff? Treason?

GRAMMAR.

1. What is Orthoepy? What is Orthography? What is a Sentence?

2. What is a *proper* noun? an *abstract* noun? a *collective* noun? Give two examples of each.

3. Write nouns of the feminine gender that correspond with Uncle, Nephew, Beau, Earl, Lad, Gander, Wizard, Sir, Boy, Bull.

4. How is a letter or a figure made plural? What is the plural of *p* and *t*? What is the plural of chimney? loaf? mouse-trap? cupful? pen-

ny (a coin)? What two forms are there for the plural of cherub?

5. What does the case of nouns or pronouns denote? When is a noun in the nominative case? When in the objective case?

6. What is a verb? What is an irregular verb? What is an intransitive verb? Write a sentence containing a verb in the progressive form.

7. What is mood? What form of the verb is the potential mood? the subjunctive mood? In what mood is the verb in the sentence, "Honor thy father and thy mother?" What is the indicative mood?

8. Give the principal parts of the following verbs: Arise, begin, draw, fly, take.

9. Correct the following sentences, if you think they are incorrect:

I intended to have asked him yesterday, but I could not hardly get time before he laid down;

They learned their lessons perfectly, but neither of them were ready to recite;

Who did you speak to as you was standing at the Door!

If I was you I would learn the scholars to speak grammatical.

Every one of them think they can perform their problems, but some can do those sort of things easier than others.

10. Parse the italicised words in the following sentence:

If every one's *internal* care
Were written on *his* brow,
How many *would* our pity *share*.
Who have our envy *now* :
The fatal secret once revealed
Of every aching *breast*,
Would show that, only while concealed,
Their *lot* appeared the best.

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. CADY, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Peep into the Dock.—No. 6.

ON my return from Providence, a fortnight since, a lad of twelve years came running to me, saying that he thought he had found a Hippocampus. He had been "prospecting" in the Dock for shrimps. He had found them there in abundance, in the vicinity of the bathing-house, and had found the "Hippocampus," as he called it, while engaged in capturing the shrimps with a dip-net of "mosquito netting." I found, on looking into the pail of water where he was keeping the creature of doubtful genus, that it was not a veritable Hippocampus, though sufficiently resembling it to be mistaken for a cousin german.

I was sadly puzzled by a couple of these crea-

tures that were sent me several years ago in a case of insects from China. I was at a loss whether to assign them a place in the world of nature or of art; or whether, considering the peculiar genius of the people whose "heads and points," in their normal condition, are in opposition to ours, they did not in fact belong in part to both. None of my friends could help me to a decision except by asking me questions to which I was unable to give any satisfactory answer. Questions, however, stimulate investigation; investigation leads to discovery. Without detail it is sufficient to say, that I finally ascertained that they belonged to the singular order of fishes called *Lophobranchii*, and, though much larger than the American species which I have seen described, their general characteristics warrant their being ranked among the Hippocampi, or Sea Horses. The specimen taken from the Dock belongs to the same order, but to a different family. It ranks among the *Syngnathidae*, and not among the Hippocampi. But as both are very singular creatures, and not, as I think, very generally known, a somewhat minute description will not be amiss.

Let us imagine an animal six inches in length, of quite slender shape, compressed laterally so as to have its greatest thickness scarcely more than an eighth of an inch, and its width or height three-eighths, the body about one and three-fourths inches long, tapering posteriorly into a tail of nearly three and one-half inches, which becomes gradually more slender towards its extremity, where it is no larger than a knitting-needle of small size, and terminated by a fin one-fourth of an inch in length, and of the same breadth at its extremity; at the anterior part of the body a head a little more than one-fourth of an inch in length, somewhat narrower than the body, and tapering rather abruptly at the orbits of two small eyes into a straight snout resembling the bill of a bird, a little less than half an inch in length and one-sixteenth of an inch in diameter, and we shall have a tolerably correct idea of the general shape of the Syngnathus, or Pipe fish. The body is heptangular in shape, the tail quadrangular. The whole of the body and tail are covered with parallel plates, extending transversely across the fish in as many rows as there are angles. These plates, of which there are fifty-nine from the head to the caudal fin, are somewhat elliptical in shape, and are marked by delicate diverging lines, which, under a magnifier of moderate power, present a beautiful appearance.

The union of the slender elongated jaws into a tube is one of the most singular features of the fish. It was this feature that was particularly puzzling to me in the Sea-horses which came in the case of insects from China, and made me uncertain whether they were to be classed among beasts, birds, reptiles or fishes. The head might have been that of a beast, as it bore some resemblance

to that of a horse; but who ever heard of a Lilliputian horse having the beak of a bird? And again, where was there ever a bird without legs or wings, and having the body and tail of a serpent? or where do we find serpents having the beak of a bird, or fishes destitute of fins? And this seemed to be the series of paradoxes presented by the Sea-horses. I did not at first observe that the apparent beak could not open like that of a bird but that it was a veritable tube. Neither did I observe the little lips at its extremity. These are quite obvious, however, since I have seen the American cousin employing its own so daintily in taking in water and ejecting it from its gills. The reptile-like appearance of the Chinese specimens is chiefly owing to the fact that the Sea-horses are destitute of the caudal fin. In fact, the specimens in the insect case are without fins at all, which circumstance increased my perplexity. I suppose the fins must have been broken off while the specimens were in process of preparation for exhibition. The Chinese specimens are three times the length of those described as being found in Massachusetts and New York. They measure upwards of fifteen inches, while the length of those found in Massachusetts is stated, in the report of Dr. Storer to the Massachusetts Legislature, to be but five. I think those found in the Hudson river are of about the same length.

The Pipe-fish captured in the Dock agrees in all essential particulars with the description of the *Syngnathus fuscus* (*Brown Pipe-fish*) in the Massachusetts Report. It is as follows:

"Body elongated, tapering exceedingly to the tail, covered with parallel horny plates of an irregular dull brown color; lighter beneath. Body in front of anal fin, heptangular with three ridges on each side; above, in the middle and below, and another in the middle of the abdomen, terminating at the anus. Throughout the greater portion of the length of the dorsal fin the body is hexangular. In front of the anus are nineteen transverse plates; between the anus and the caudal rays are forty plates. Length of the specimen six inches; the distance from the tip of the snout to the posterior angle of the operculum one-eighth of the length of the fish; the distance between the snout and the anterior angle of the eye, and that between the same angle and the origin of the pectorals, equal. *Jaws* tubular, compressed, a slight ridge above; *lower-jaw* rather the longer, passing obliquely upward to form the mouth; top of the head depressed; a furrow between the eyes; a crest on the neck; *eyes* circular, half a line in diameter. *Operculum* brown above, golden beneath; under the glass exhibiting minute granulations and radiating striae.

"The Dorsal fin arises two lines from the tip of the snout; the height of the fin one-seventh of its length,* of a light-brown color,

"The Anal fin is situated under the middle of the dorsal fin, and is very minute.

"The Caudal fin is two lines in length, darker colored than the body, rounded at the extremity.

"The fin rays are: D. 38; P. 13; A. 3; C. 9."

I hope not to give offence by the conjecture that to some of my readers, the last formula of the quotation may not be perfectly intelligible. The interpretation is, that the dorsal fin has thirty-eight rays, the pectorals each thirteen, the anal three, and the caudal nine. I have also some recollection of a period in my own history when some formula referring to the Mammalia were to me rather obscure. I fear they still are so to some of my pupils, though I do not intend that the obscurity shall be permanent. Take, for instance, one

of the easiest: "The True Ape, $\frac{4}{4}, \frac{2}{2}, \frac{10}{10}$."

Indicating that the True Ape has, in each jaw, four cutting teeth (*incisors*), two canine and ten grinders (*molars*). I hardly need say, this is not from the Dock.

In the Report upon the Fishes of Massachusetts three species of the Pipe-fish are described, and one of the Sea-horse. The descriptions occupy six pages. From these descriptions I infer that these peculiar fish are rare in the waters of Massachusetts, as they doubtless are in Narragansett bay. On making inquiry in my school, I found that scarcely half a dozen pupils had ever seen or even heard of them, although they and their parents had always lived within sight of the water. Those who knew anything of them called them the Bill-fish. The one before me is the first and only specimen that has fallen under my own observation.

I. F. C.

*From this statement we should infer that the height of the dorsal fin is but one-seventh of the length of the same fin. In the specimen from the Dock I find the length of this fin to be almost precisely one-seventh of that of the fish. I do not find the golden color upon the operculum. Other particulars agree.

THE TOMATO AS FOOD.—Dr. Bennett, a professor of some celebrity, considers the tomato an invaluable article of diet, and ascribes to it important medical properties:—1st. That the tomato is one of the most powerful aperients of the liver and other organs; where calomel is indicated, it is probably one of the most effective and the least harmful remedial agents known to the profession. 2d. That a chemical extract will be obtained from it that will supersede the use of calomel in the cure of disease. 3d. That he has successfully treated diarrhoea with this article alone. 4th. That when used as an article of diet it is almost sovereign for dyspepsia and indigestion. 5th. That it should be constantly used for daily food; either cooked, raw, or in the form of catsup, it is the most healthy article now in use.

Mathematics.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to N. W. DEMUNN, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Zero Exponent,—Its Fallacy.

First: The zero exponent, as compared with all others, is unique in its influence as an exponent: thus, with numerical exponents the magnitude of a number, when raised to the proposed power, is commensurate with the number itself, viz., $10^2=100$, $100^2=10,000$; whereas, the power of a number affected by a zero index is always 1, without regard to the magnitude of the number thus employed: $10^0=1$, $100^0=1$, &c.

Second: The method of obtaining the power of a number whose index is zero, differs from the ordinary plan of procedure. In the latter case factors are employed illustrating the principle of multiplication; but instead of such a plan in the preceding case, a formula to substantiate the validity of the zero index, thus adding, as it were, the proof before the solution.

Third: According to Greenleaf, "that number from which a power is derived is called the root of that power"; hence, admitting the power of 10^0 , 100^0 or 1000^0 to equal 1, then the root is greater than the power, an unprecedented fact in the operations of evolution, when integral quantities are involved. Again, if 1 be the power of a fraction whose index is zero, then the root is less than the power, which fact, with due allowances, will admit of the same comment as the above.

But where does the fallacy lie? I reply, in the very formula adduced to demonstrate the existence of the Z. E.

Let us examine it: $\frac{a^1}{a^1} = a^{1-1} = a^0$.

Again, $\frac{a^1}{a^1} = 1$, hence $a^0 = 1$.

We will now present it a little more fully:

$\frac{a^4}{a^1} = a^{4-1} = a \times a \times a$, or a^3 .

Again, $\frac{a^3}{a^1} = a^{3-1} = a \times a$ or a^2 .

" $\frac{a^2}{a^1} = a^{2-1} = a$ or a^1 .

$\frac{a^1}{a^1} = a^{1-1} = 0$ not a^0 .

You will notice in each successive division the number of factors decreases by one until, finally, none remain.

This, I contend, is a proper view of the formula. An exponent is but the representative of a factor

or factors, and if you discard an exponent you discard as many factors as are represented thereby. Hence, if from any exponent one of equal magnitude is subtracted, you virtually subtract as many factors as are represented by that exponent.

The following illustration of subtracting the factors in lieu of their representatives, is more simplified:

Four factors ($a \times a \times a \times a$) less one = three ($a \times a \times a$) or a^3 .

Three factors ($a \times a \times a$) less one = two ($a \times a$) or a^2 .

Two factors ($a \times a$) less one = one (a) or a^1 .

One factor (a) less one = 0 or 0^0 .

Again, by my theory, $\frac{a^1}{a^1} = a^{1-1} = 0$.

Yet, $\frac{a^1}{a^1} = 1$, hence $1 \neq 0$.

This we all know to be absurd; therefore, it proves conclusively that in dividing quantities affected by exponents, the principle of subtraction is wholly inadequate when those quantities are of equal magnitude.

Mathematicians, in endorsing the theory of a "Zero Exponent," have, in reality, though not designedly, attempted to prove that, inasmuch as a quantity divided by itself equals one, the same quantity when subtracted from itself must produce a like result.

In conclusion, I would recommend it to your leniency, from the lesson of equality which it teaches; for a quantity, of whatever magnitude, whether integral or fractional, when subjected to its influence "produces one"; hence, typifying the state of human society, it would level the mounds of distinction which men have elevated, and advocate the idea that "all men are born free and equal."

PROBLEMS.—By Iago, Chicago, Ill.: "Suppose this and that, the half of this and that, minus 7, equals 11, what will this or that be?"

By P. J. Chase, Iowa: "A pole 96 feet high, standing on the edge of a pond 4 feet deep, was broken by the wind, the top falling within 10.7703½ feet of the bottom of the pole, and leaning on the piece standing; how long was the piece standing, and how long was the piece leaning from the water to where it broke?"—*New York Paper*.

VERBAL STATISTICS.—The annexed suggestion is made by a Nottingham journal: "Professor Max Muller, in his admirable lectures on the Science of Language, (call it, if you will, Glossology or Logology,) tells us that out of the primitive words, probably, 60,000 words or so in the English tongue, it has been found that a rustic laborer only used 300. An ordinarily educated man is supposed to use 3,000 or 4,000, while a great orator reaches 10,000. The Old Testament contains 6,842 different words; and the works of Shakespeare about 16,000; those of Milton about 8,000."

Moral Culture.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to GEORGE A. WILLARD, Warwick Neck, R. I.

✎ Communications on this subject and also incidents (either original or selected) which give practical illustrations of moral principles, are invited. Actual occurrences, when accurately presented to view, always convey an impressive lesson, and we shall feel greatly obliged to all who will contribute such to this department.—Ed.

Wanted.

A convincing and conclusive reply to the universal habit, among children, of justifying an improper act by saying that the same had been done to them. "John, did you strike James?" "Yes, but he struck me first." "John, have you James' knife?" "Yes, but he has my pencil," &c., &c. Now, what will convince him that this is not a reason which justifies his conduct? Every teacher has a process of reasoning to meet the case, but as the fault is so common cannot a prescription be furnished which will be infallible, one which will not only silence the offender but convince him?

Will not some correspondent who is well versed in the science of morals and manners furnish the above.

WHY are moral lessons so uninteresting? Why is it so difficult to impress them on the mind and heart? Why do the examples of the upright and the virtuous have no more commanding influence? Examples and precepts in folly and crime are far more impressive on those who are within the circle of their influence. How numerous and quick are the scholars in one case, and how few and dull in the other. A profane, vulgar and intemperate man can easily lead many in his train, while a sober, exemplary man, always judicious in his words and commendable in his conduct, may make few imitators.

Hardly anything is more disagreeable than to be lectured. Some persons have a peculiar faculty to make themselves disagreeable, by an incessant clamoring about somebody's faults, and, what is still more uncomfortable, is their inclination to point out your own and enlarge upon them. Perhaps no duty requires more skill for its successful performance than to speak to another person of his faults in such a way as shall lead to their correction and not give offence.

We do not propose here to discuss the question, why this is so, but, in such a state of things, to consider what shall be done. Must the effort be abandoned because it is attended with difficulties? Is it evidence that a person needs no moral instruction because he has no inclination for it? This conclusion would be far from correct; then what shall be done?

Something may be learned from precedent. There are some branches of study which are regarded as very dry and uninteresting, but still they are judged to be important, and perseverance is the method adopted in teaching them. To very many—though it ought to be otherwise—grammar is an uninteresting study, still there are in most of our schools a good number of scholars who make creditable proficiency in this branch. The teachers require constant attention to the subject, and in process of time a good degree of advancement is made. The teacher is watchful to employ the most successful methods to make his subject understood and to give interest to the exercise. Here is a judicious course, and it is worthy of imitation. It is also according to the direction of scripture. Moses, the great teacher of the Jews, gave them the following directions, (Deut. 6:7): "And thou shalt teach them diligently unto thy children, and shalt talk of them when thou sittest in thy house, and when thou walkest by the way, and when thou liest down, and when thou risest up." This is incessant, and must accomplish the desired result.

How widely different the course of those teachers who occasionally give some admonition, and failing to see any striking result, relinquish their efforts. With such general neglect in this department of instruction, it is not surprising that so little improvement is made. The conclusion, therefore, to which THE SCHOOLMASTER has come on this matter is that much more attention should be given to the subject. Teachers should elevate the standard.

Christian Schools.

SOMETIMES in listening to the tale of other times, we almost wish we had lived in the good old times of long ago. Still, who would not rather live now, and be a moving spirit in this most remarkable age? Let those of other times boast of a golden, a silvery, a brazen age; but we boast in nobler strains of an intellectual and a religious age:—an age when fallen humanity is moved by past and passing events, and the dawning of a brighter epoch seems to be arising and preparing for that happy time when the knowledge of the Lord shall cover the whole earth, when sin shall be banished, and righteousness prevail. In no former age have the angels oftener tuned their hearts anew, and, catching the anthem of praise, swelled the loud chorus as it rolled over the blest land of immortality. And still the tide swells, and a purer and more divine influence is permeating the life of the world.

The great sources whence flow these life-giving, ennobling influences are Christian parents, Christian teachers and Christian students; or, in short, Christian schools. For here latent talent is evolved, youthful minds are expanded and fortified by the sublimest truths and the purest virtue. In

such schools are trained up the most eminent in the world; and from them go forth streams, making glad the city of our God. They will reform public opinion, purify the elements of society, resist the tide of evil, transmit to future generations a country untarnished, a religion uncorrupted.

What a glorious cause! None greater or better can enlist your influence or encourage your sympathies. To raise a band of immortal beings from the lowest depth of earth to be good and great before God; to send them forth as streams that shall penetrate the secret recesses of the land; to guide them on the pathway to immortality; and at last meet them within the gates of the heavenly city, is a pleasure that can only swell the heart of Christian parents and Christian teachers. The truest patriotism could not aspire to nobler things than these;—to elevate our fellow-beings to the dignity of truthful freemen; to reclaim from the paths of sin and woe those who would have been moving spirits in the world of despair, and have them shine as the stars, for ever and ever.

In this work of Christian education, very much depends on the parents. The greatest blessing you can confer on this nation is to leave behind you a generation of youth that shall ever revere all that is great in man or good in morals.

Youths are the hope of our country! The rising race is the hope of coming millions. Soon you will have played your part on the stage of action, and your children will take your place. Can you be indifferent, then, as to the instructions received and imparted? Can you hazard the consequences of letting their childhood and youth pass without their being recipients of the blessing which ever attends faithful, earnest, prayerful training? Send your influence, then, to Christian schools. See to it that your children have for companions the pure and good; for instructors those who, whilst just as anxious as others to have them climb the hill of science, are more anxious to have them mount up the hill of Zion. Almost in vain will the faithful teacher labor for your children, without your aid and influence.

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Labor in hope. Sometimes effort seems to be immediately crowned with success, and the mind awakes to thought and action. At other times all labor seems to be in vain. But no; these rudiments can never die, can never be suppressed. They will yet spring forth. Labor with perseverance; let not difficulties and trials overcome you; but let them rather incite you to greater effort. Gird on anew your armor, and go forth to contend against all opposing foes.

"Still achieving, still pursuing,
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You cannot fail. If you work upon marble, it will perish; if you work upon brass, time will efface it; if you rear temples they will crumble to the dust; but if you work upon immortal minds, if you imbue them with high principles, with the just fear of God and of their fellow-men,—you engrave upon these tables something which no time can efface, but which will brighten and brighten to all eternity. Up, then, ye who are engaged in this holy cause. Awake to your duties, your responsibilities, your rewards, when "the sun shall be blotted out and the moon and stars shall withdraw their shining."—UNION, in *Juniata (Pa.) Democrat*.

THE BOTTOM OF THE OCEAN.—Soundings in the Atlantic, according to *All the Year Round*, have revealed the fact that at least two hundred and thirty miles from the coast of Ireland, the water is still shallow; or, in other words, that there is another Ireland only waiting to be raised—thus reversing the famous panacea for keeping the country quiet. It is just beyond this that the true Atlantic begins, the gulf suddenly sinking to nine thousand feet. Thus Ireland may one day have a coast line as high as the Alps. The whole floor of the Atlantic is paved with a soft, sticky substance, called ooze, nine-tenths consisting of very minute animals, many of them mere lumps of jelly, and thousands of which could float with ease in a drop of water; some resembling toothed-wheels; others bundles of spines or threads shooting from a little globe. Some, however, are endowed with the property of separating flint from the sea water—which is more than every chemist could do; and there are hundreds of square miles covered with the skeletons of those little creatures. Part of this ooze is doubtless from the clouds of rain-dust which rise from the vast steppes of South America, in such masses as to darken the sun, and make the animals fly to shelter, and which, after sweeping like a simoon over the country, loose themselves in the "steep Atlantic." No bones have been found of the larger animals, so that the kraken and sea-serpent might sleep their last sleep and leave not a bone, or a vertebra to tell the tale. Not a mast or anchor, nor a block or strand, not a coin or keepsake, has been found to testify of the countless gallant ships and more gallant men who have gone down amid the pitiless waves.

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Editors' Department.

Contributions.

THE following contributions have been received in compliance with a resolution passed at a recent meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, held at Carolina Mills, for the relief of the sick and wounded soldiers:

Previously acknowledged.....	\$87 81
Elveton Arnold, Dist. No. 13, North Kingstown	21
Susan B. Wescott, Primary School, River Point.....	1 00
James M. Collins, District No. 12, White Rock Village, Westerly.....	72
F. H. Davis, District No. 14, Dorrville, Westerly.....	56
Miss Clarissa Cargill, Dist. No. 13, Cumberlandland.....	1 40
S. W. Bicknell, High School, Bristol.....	60
	<hr/> \$92 30

THE following lines were penned by an Irish mechanic in this city, who makes less pretension to literary ability and turns his verses smoother than some whose names help to fill the rolls of academic shades. While we forget not that Whittier sung his earlier ballads to the time of the lapstone, so for this humble author, keeping time with the same music, we predict no inglorious fame:

OUR COUNTRY'S CALL.

Awake, New England's sons, awake,
Our country's glory 's now at stake,
The rebels' power we soon will break,
And keep our country free.

We'll lay the monster treason low,
With Freedom's ring in every blow,
And broadcast Freedom's seed we'll sow,
And reap sweet liberty.

Have our fathers died in vain
Our glorious freedom to attain?
This sacred trust we'll still maintain
We shall be ever free.

By the memory of our sires,
And every impulse that inspires,
By our sacred altar fires,
We must and will be free.

Let Freedom's high exalted name
Arouse the noble patriot flame,
Our vallant deeds will be the theme
For all posterity.

We'll raise our heavenly banner high,
A guiding star in every sky,
Beneath its folds we'll live and die,
Our country, 'tis for thee.

SEE notice of the Annual Meeting of the American Institute of Instruction on another page.

NAMES of members of the Providence High School enlisted and gone to the war in the Ninth and Tenth Regiments Rhode Island Volunteers, May, 1862:

Dana B. Robinson,	Frank F. Tingley,
Charles L. Stafford,	John E. Larned,
John A. Reynolds,	William C. Angell,
Jesse P. Eddy,	William A. Spicer,
David Hunt, Jr.,	William H. Hawks,
Edwin B. Fisk,	James W. Blackwood,
Charles B. Greene,	Harry A. Richardson,
Edmund B. Peck,	Samuel F. Mitchell,
Eugene F. Phillips,	George T. Baker,
Daniel Bush,	Nathan Baker,
Jesse M. Bush,	Charles Smith,
James F. Field,	Charles Latham,
William P. Vaughan,	William P. Cragin,
J. W. McCrillis,	Charles C. Cragin,
B. Matthewson, 2d,	William A. H. Grant,
John B. Kelley,	Samuel Dorrance,
George Sparhawk,	Henry S. Latham,
Horace K. Blanchard,	Chaffin,
Frank Frost,	John Tetlow, Jr.,
Franklin B. Ham,	Charles Anthony,
Charles F. Greene,	Zephaniah Brown.

The first six are graduates of 1862. The last nine were recent members of the school, but had left previous to enlisting.

By accepting from Mr. Sidney S. Rider a box of his "*Burnside Pens*," we laid ourselves under obligation to produce a puff, the most difficult sort of article for such editors as we to write. But we evaded all responsibility by distributing the pens to our fifty boys, and resolving to write only their collective opinion. A trial of the pen either in your school or at your own table will explain how it was that we gathered about fifty golden opinions from our pupils. Gen. Burnside and Mr. Rider are very popular with the boys; who recognise true steel, whether it be in generals' swords or in booksellers' pens. T.

WE call the attention of teachers and school committees to the advertisement of Smith, Wilson & Co. This enterprising firm have been very successful in their endeavor to furnish teachers of ability with permanent and lucrative situations, and equally as successful in obtaining thorough teachers for schools. By their attention to business and honesty in recommending they have secured the confidence of the public. If any teacher in Rhode Island is in want of a situation, let him send his name and qualifications to Messrs. Smith, Wilson & Co., 561 Broadway, New York.

MERR is never so conspicuous as when it springs from obscurity, just as the moon never looks so lustrous as when it emerges from a cloud.

THE worst-hearted of enemies are often less to be dreaded than the most kind-hearted friends.

Our Book Table.

ENGLISH ANALYSIS; Containing Forms for the complete Analysis of English Composition, together with Selections for Analysis from the best English authors. Designed to accompany the study of English Grammar in the High and Grammar schools. By Edward P. Bates, A. M., Principal of Cotting Academy, West Cambridge, Mass. Boston: Crosby & Nichols, 117 Washington street. 1862.

In this little book Mr. Bates shows how he has been accustomed to lend interest to the study of grammar and composition in his own school. We have felt the use of such aid as this, and have examined the book not without profit. The dry bones of grammar are here so arranged as to form a respectable-looking skeleton. We commend the book to teachers of grammar, especially in high schools, where *analysis* and *parsing* have begun to be somewhat "played out." T.

WAR LIFE ILLUSTRATED BY STORIES OF THE CAMP AND FIELD. Compiled by Tim Trapp. New York: Callender, Perce & Willing, 208 Broadway. 1862.

This is really a little side-shaker. It abounds in humorous sketches and illustrations by a witty compiler. It will have a great run, we predict, as it really deserves. Mr. Clough, on Weybosset street, is the sole agent for this section, and will give a life portrait of "Honest Abe" with every copy he sells.

Call on Mr. Clough and see his wonderful package of stationery. He will fit out a correspondent for a three months voyage for twenty-five cents.

We have received the July number of the *Pulpit and Rostrum*, containing a sketch of Parson Brownlow, by Theodore Tilton, and his speeches on the sufferings of the Union men at the South, and the irreligious character of the rebellion, fully and correctly reported in short-hand by Charles B. Collar, with the applause and observations of the audience inserted, giving a life-like view of the enthusiastic reception which the "Parson" received for his unconquerable devotion to the Union. In these speeches, Mr. Brownlow narrates, in his eccentric and graphic style, many and various incidents of the rebellion, that came to his personal knowledge, which must thrill every loyal heart by turns with joy, rage and sorrow. As a record of the times, these speeches are worthy to be read and preserved by every patriot and historian. Price, in neat 12mo. pamphlet form, ten cents. Published by E. D. Baker, 135 Grand street, New York.

THE CONTINENTAL MONTHLY.—The July number of this new aspirant for public favor begins volume II. It has passed safely through the ordeal of public opinion, and is recognized as among the leading magazines of the country. Many of its

articles are furnished by some of our eminent statesmen, giving their views upon the great questions arising from the distracted state of our country. The *Continental* is an out-and-out Union monthly. It *should* be sustained, and no doubt it *will* be sustained.

Terms to clubs: Two copies for five dollars; Three copies, six dollars; Twenty copies, thirty-six dollars.

APPLETON'S NEW AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA.—The XIV. volume of this excellent work has now reached us. It fully sustains the reputation already established by the preceding volumes. The entire work will consist of sixteen volumes. *When completed it will form the most useful library for schools which can be purchased for the amount of its price.* It is furnished, in cloth, at \$3.00 a volume. It is already in use in many schools of our State. We hope it will find its way into many more school libraries of our towns, villages and rural districts.

Subscriptions are taken at the book-store of Sidney S. Rider, 19 Westminster street, Providence. M.

THE ATLANTIC FOR JULY has been perused with increasing interest. Each month's issue adds something to the previously acquired popularity of this *best* of monthlies. The table of contents will give an idea of the July number:

"Some Soldier Poetry; Froude's Henry the Eighth; Why their Creeds Differ; Presence; Chiefly about War Matters; The Minute Guns; Originality; Ericsson and his Inventions; Methods of Study in Natural History; Friend Eli's Daughter; Taxation no Burden; The Poet to his Readers; The Children's Cities; Reviews," &c.

THE LADIES' REPOSITORY FOR JULY has been received. Its engravings are very fine, being, "Spirit of '76," and "Parson Brownlow." We receive no magazine that contains better reading matter or one whose mechanical execution and illustrations are in better taste. Terms, \$2.00 per annum in advance.

WHO MURDER INNOCENTS?—Mr. Slashaway, who writes for the Ocean Magazine, says the teachers murder them. Mrs. Prim, who picks the mote out of *other* people's eyes, says the same. Mr. Tradewell, who comes home at night with the headache, and does not like to be troubled with the children's lessons, iterates the same grave charge. And all lazy boys and girls offer themselves as the *living* witness that they expect to die of hard study.

We protest—

Who sends the children to bed with stomachs overloaded with indigestible food? Not the teacher.

Who allows Susan Jane to go out in wet weather

with cloth shoes and pasteboard soles? Not the teacher.

Who allows the little child, in cold weather, to go with its lower extremities half bare, or but thinly clad, because it is fashionable? Not the teacher.

Who allows John and Mary, before they have reached their "teens," to go to the "ball" and dance until the cock crows? Not the teacher.

Who compels the children, several in number perhaps, to sleep in a little, close, unventilated bed-room? Not the teacher.

Who builds the school-house "tight as a drum," without any possibility of ventilation? Not the teacher.

Who frets and scolds, if "my child" does not get along as fast as some other child does? Not the teacher.

Who inquires, not how *thoroughly* "my child" is progressing, but *how fast*? Not the teacher.

Who murder the innocents?—*Mass. Teacher.*

Thirty-Third Annual Meeting of the American Institute of Instruction.

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION will hold its thirty-third annual meeting at the State House in Hartford, on the 20th, 21st and 22d days of August next. The hotels will entertain those attending these meetings for one-half the usual rates, and the railroads give free return tickets. The public exercises will be as follows:

WEDNESDAY, AUG. 20TH.

At 2 1-2 o'clock P. M., the meeting will be organized for the transaction of business. The usual addresses of welcome having been made, the President will deliver his Annual Address; after which the following subject will be discussed:

Methods of Teaching Geography.

At 8 o'clock P. M., a lecture by Samuel Elliot, President Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.

THURSDAY, AUG. 21ST.

At 9 o'clock A. M., a Discussion. Subject: *How can the Study of English Grammar, and of the English Language, be made more efficient and beneficial?*

At 11 o'clock A. M., a Lecture by Joshua Kendall, Esq., Principal of Rhode Island Normal School, Bristol.

At 2 1-2 o'clock P. M., a Lecture by Wm. H. Russell, Esq., Principal of Military Institute, New Haven, Conn.

At 3 1-2 o'clock P. M., a Discussion. Subject: *Ought Military Instruction to be generally introduced into our Schools?*

At 8 o'clock P. M., a Lecture by Hon. Joseph

White, Secretary of Massachusetts Board of Education.

FRIDAY, AUG. 22D.

At 9 o'clock A. M., a Discussion. Subject: *Methods of Instruction best adapted to develop in Pupils the power of communicating knowledge.*

At 11 o'clock A. M., a Lecture by L. Hall Grandgent, Esq., of the Mayhew School, Boston.

At 2 1-2 o'clock P. M., a lecture by Hon. D. N. Camp, Superintendent of Public Instruction of Connecticut.

At 8 o'clock P. M., a Lecture by Hon. Wm. D. Swan, of Boston, Mass., to be followed by brief Addresses from Representatives of several States.

DISCOURAGING CHILDREN.—It is somewhere related that a poor soldier, having had his skull fractured, was told by the doctor that his brains were visible. "Do write and tell father of it, for he always said I had no brains," he replied. How many fathers and mothers tell their children this, and how often does such a remark contribute not a little to prevent any development of the brain? A grown person tells a child he is brainless, foolish, or a blockhead, or that he is deficient in some mental or moral faculty, and in nine cases out of ten, the statement is believed, the thought that it may be partially so acts like an incubus to repress the confidence and energies of that child. Let any person look to childhood's days, and he can doubtless recall many words and expressions which exerted such a discouraging or encouraging influence over him as to tell upon his whole course of future life. We knew an ambitious boy who, at the age of ten years, had become so depressed with fault-finding and reproof, not duly mingled with encouraging words that at an early age he longed for death to take him out of the world, in which he conceived he had no ability to rise. But while all thus appeared so dark around him, and he had been so often told of his faults and deficiencies that he seemed the dullest and worst of boys, and while none of his good qualities and capabilities had been mentioned, and he believed he had none, a single word of praise and appreciation, carelessly dropped in his hearing, changed his whole course of thought. We have often heard him say, "that word saved him." The moment he thought he could do well he resolved that he would—and he has done well. Parents, these are important considerations.

IMPORTANT ANNOUNCEMENT.

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No. 1 contains a drill exercise upon the formation of the fifteen letters included under the *i* and *o* principles, in medium-sized hand, with several copies of short words.

No. 2 combines a drill upon the formation of the twenty-six small letters, in a smaller hand, arranged under their respective principles, with the proper manner of connecting them together in words.

In this, and the two following numbers, particular attention is given to the fore-arm and finger movements, by appropriate exercises upon the elementary principles and their various combinations.

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No. 4 contains further exercises for the fore-arm, words of medium length, sentences, and a complete review of the whole system, in a still smaller hand.

The first four pages call attention to a drill exercise upon waste paper to develop the fore-arm movement, the elbow resting upon the desk, and the fore-arm moving freely.

Two sets of copies are given in several pages of Nos. 3 and 4, for practice on waste paper.

No. 5. The principal feature of this book is the systematic arrangement of the capital letters in pairs for drill exercises in words commencing with these letters. The last nine pages of this number have sentences extending across the page.

No. 6 contains proverbial sentences, systematically arranged.

No. 7 contains historical sentences, in a little finer hand.

No. 8 contains mercantile and other business forms.

No. 9 contains sentences in a larger hand than the preceding numbers.

No. 10 contains short sentences in a smaller hand.

No. 11 contains sentences in a fine hand for ladies.

No. 12 contains large coarse hand for engrossing purposes, and the various styles of Ornamental penmanship, including German Text, Old English, and Italic characters.

The former editions of Nos. 9 and 10, containing the large hand, will be furnished to those who prefer them.

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HENRY BARNARD, LL. D., *American Journal of Education.*

It is truly refreshing to look at the elegant pages of this new book for the little ones. We almost wish ourself back to our days of jacket and ruffled collar, that we might have the pleasure of studying this charming book with a boy's delight. The numerous cuts are large and beautiful. The maps, even, are adorned with instructive pictures. The letter-press is as fair and inviting as any typographical epicure can desire. The subject-matter happily exhibits the author's good taste and common sense. We sincerely believe that this Primary Geography is one of extraordinary merit, and therefore deserving of the favorable attention we hope it will receive.—*Massachusetts Teacher.*

The important educational improvements of the last ten years have been in methods of primary instruction.

Primary Geography offered an inviting field, which Mr. Allen has entered boldly and cultivated successfully. I have placed his book in the hands of my own children, and find them as much charmed with it as I have been. Let no one hereafter say that geography cannot be made as attractive as any other book of stories and pictures. Mr. Allen adopted nature's own method, and the child that is delighted with the objects which he sees in looking around him on "the surface of the earth," cannot fail to be delighted also with the beautiful descriptions and illustrations in this Primary Geography.

W. H. WELLS, *Superintendent Public Schools, Chicago.*

I am happy to answer your inquiries in regard to what I think of the use and worth of Allen's Primary Geography on the Object Method of Instruction.

I introduced it into our schools last term, and have watched its workings with care. I value it very highly, and believe it will make a new era in teaching geography. The dry bones of geography have chattered and shaken long enough in schools. I am glad to see a book on the subject with muscle, nerves, brain, beauty and life. This little book is rich in suggestions, and is grounded in the nature of children. It wakes up more thought and interest in a class in one lesson, under a live, earnest teacher, than will generally be done in a week by a text-book of the old style. It works well, and both teachers and pupils like it.

The author has added much to our methods of teaching geography, and the publishers deserve great praise for the elegant engravings and beautiful typography in which the thought is dressed.

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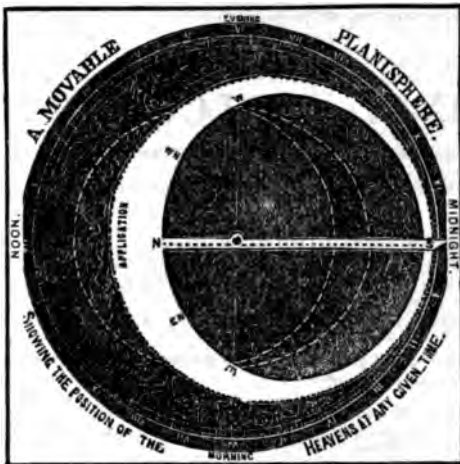
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THE
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The R. I. Schoolmaster.

AUGUST, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

NUMBER EIGHT.

For the Schoolmaster.
Thoreau's Writings.

THE recent death of Thoreau, and the republication of his works, which had fallen out of print, seem to give occasion for a notice of books which, we believe, are not so well known as they deserve to be.

Henry D. Thoreau was a resident of Concord, Massachusetts, and he shared the literary and philosophical spirit which, to many minds, have invested that village with all imaginable excellence and beauty of life. Of his life we know but little, nor expect to know much more. For though our biographers are a numerous tribe, they are, by a wise Providence, incapable of seeing materials for a biography where there are no outward events or conspicuous actions. Only when some deep-seeing Carlyle feels the sacred duty, does the world see what precious John Sterlings, possessing their souls in patience, it contains.

Thoreau's life was meditative, rather than active. To an extent almost unparalleled, so far as we know, he carried out the tendency of the idealist thinkers of New England to speculate on life and men, unrestrained by social or religious relations. This freedom is what we love in Thoreau. It is the very air in which he lived. Wishing to live simply for a time, he built himself a hut on the shore of Walden Pond, in Concord, and supported himself by raising beans, aloof from men, and once put into jail for non-payment of taxes,—not precisely the "correct thing" for a Cambridge graduate of scholarly address and respectability,—yet the thing he chose to do. Yet this freak possesses no interest for us, except as a type of the

inner, spiritual man. He went to Walden Pond, committed to no system of theology or of parlor ethics. A poor man, apparently, with his living to earn, and intent on earning it without defiling his soul. He had tried this business of teaching; but concluded that, because he taught for a livelihood, and not for the good of the race, his teaching was a failure. Therefore he goes into the woods to live; and lives there an elegant and ideal life, hoeing beans, cooking corn-cake, and learning God's truth, as cannot be done by men who are sunk to their necks in the mire of human institutions.

It is from being the perfection of a man's principles of life, that they secure to him social respect and influence: though we naturally look for these as a result of genuineness of character. On the contrary, we find evidence of a deficiency of character, when a person modifies his thinking, or adopts principles of action, with the direct and conscious purpose of gaining friends. You think you derive great advantage from your artificial fellowships and freemasonries; but I find that for your miserable little mysteries you have paid the most ruinous price; for you are incrustated with mud, and no longer reflect the light of heaven. A man cannot catch friends with bird-lime. His concern is to express himself in word and deed, and to care no more for his social estimation than for his stature. "God will see that you do not want society." We care not to justify further Thoreau's seclusion. He was not terrified by the charge of selfishness. He knew for what he lived. Who will criticize the manner of his life? A self-reliant man is quite out of the sphere of criticism, while he does not intermeddle in your affairs, and if you undertake to advise him, will

probably not think it necessary to show plausible reasons for rejecting the advice.

We would like to know in what estimation he was held by the villagers. To us there must be an ideal fairness in his life, which looked otherwise to the people who saw him at his work or met him on his rambles. But we are sure that his contemporaries never charged him with sentimentality or moroseness of temper. He is cheery, gay and earnest, and fits into his place in the woods as naturally as the birds and squirrels, which always chirp and leap, but are never seen to do anything trivial. He finds himself no more lonesome than are the pond and the trees. Second-rate spirits, disgusted with the hollowness and vanity of the things of the world, often enough grow sour and misanthropic. There are wails and shrieks of such, written at length in poetry and prose, which are greedily caught up by the great mass of readers. Most of our recent poetry seems to us of this sort. But Thoreau's spirit is healthy and serene, untouched by any of the diseases of special reforms and philanthropies. He has no indigestion, or disappointed hope, or dead friend, that he thinks it worth while to trouble the world about. Like every healthy man, he is a reporter of things as he sees them, and not as he thinks you would like to have him see them.

Thoreau's relation to nature is almost unique, and yet, if we consider it, the most proper to a sound man. The landscape is his home. He is domesticated in the forest, and is fully initiated in all the secrets of wood-craft, and of animal and vegetable life. Yet his interest in these things is not a scientific one. He does not dissect the birds, nor count the stamens of the flowers; unless, perhaps, some wanton mood falls upon him, when he would doubtless do as he liked at the time, without recollecting his creed concerning the matter. His interest in nature is better than scientific: it is the feeling of oneness with nature, a sympathy with his own thoughts expressed in hills, rivers, animals and plants. He rejoices in the purity and depth of Walden Pond, he bathes in its water, drinks from it, watches the beautiful changes of hue which the heavens reflect upon its surface, and makes the acquaintance of the otters and loons with which he shares its bounty. In winter he surveys the pond on the ice, sounds its depth, takes its dimensions, and comes to know it as intimately as you know your back-yard. But neither utility nor beauty form the limit of his *thought concerning nature*. That which study

cannot discover, he sees, because he is transparent to the light. Objects reveal to him a deep sense: deeper than men less simple could extract from libraries and colleges. Hence we find sensual persons ridiculing the passages of his books in which he states the truths of his philosophy, and praising only the descriptions or humorous parts. Ruskin loves nature with more than the mere artist's love, and he has written books invaluable to all who undertake to cultivate the æsthetic part of the character. Yet Ruskin disgusts us with a cheap whining over the damage done to his fine scenery by the sacrilegious railway-cutting, and the blasphemous renovation of old buildings. Thoreau's spirit is immeasurably above such sentimentality. His railroad prompts him to frequent moralizing, which he indulges in the pleasantest mood, while he considers how these gigantic utilities affect the souls of men. Thoreau loves nature, but does not say so directly. There are persons enough who will profess to admire the landscape and the flowers, while their life and conversation belie their professions. Thoreau's love of nature is so simple, and so much a part of himself, that it expresses itself as surely as the emotions of children. He is not guilty of that awkward solecism of the current religious ideas, that a man should look away from nature, when he has enjoyed its beauty and its use, in order to thank its Author. He knows the etiquette of the temple too well to make so gross a blunder in ceremony.

Thoreau published two books: "A Week on the Concord and Merrimac Rivers," and "Walden, or Life in the Woods." He was a contributor to Margaret Fuller's "Dial." The article on "Walking," in the June number of the *Atlantic*, is from his pen, and the publishers of that magazine promise several more articles to appear in early numbers.

These writings bear evidence of culture and refinement. The author's humor, far more than his discontent, determines the manner in which he views men and things. He is satirical: but his satire is genial, and your better nature at once sides with it against its object. His thought frequently flows into the metrical form, so that his pages abound in poetical passages, many of which are very beautiful and natural. The details which he gives of his domestic economy are interesting. You learn that the necessary expense of boarding in this world is very small. These things also go into the business of living. His philosophy is not systematized:

perhaps it is not to be named by any of the current names of philosophies. He utters his doctrines when they are suggested. This desultoriness renders his books attractive, readable and familiar.

We esteem these writings as valuable in our literature, because they are an expression of the freedom, both of the outward and of the inner life, which is the birth-right of every man. That is the rare and exemplary person, who does not suffer himself to be cheated of his inheritance by the conspiracy of society. When one such appears, we lay our course by him as by a star. Wise counsellors, men of sagacity and common sense, avail us not. Our genuine man is a ray of light, an inspiration, under whose influence we undertake new enterprises of thought, and dare to explore perilous regions. It is when we think we are most respectable, and that we are most comfortably filling our place in life, that we are most asleep. I see that the common estimate of success is very base. A drowsy nightmare oppresses men so heavily that they grow used to it, and scorn the call of him who bids them come out of their foul dream. We are all revellers, more or less drunken, most of us irrecoverably so, reeling among the shadows of the world, dupes of every bloated utility and sensual good that mock us in our lethargy. In the darkness and dimness perhaps there are a few who whisper hints of light, or can even produce a ray. To listen to these warnings, to discern and acknowledge the light, are the sole conditions of life. Contempt of the prophecy is the unpardonable sin. The noble success in life is perception of the truth, and stern obedience to it. Your mumbling of this high doctrine, as a tradition out of antiquity, means nothing. You do not believe it, while you despise your contemporary prophets, and "make the commandment of God of none effect by your tradition." T.

THE CARE OF THE EYES.—First, never use a desk or a table with your face toward a window. In such case the rays of light coming directly upon the pupil of the eyes, and causing an unnatural and forced contraction thereof, soon permanently injures the sight. Next, when your table or desk is near a window, sit so that your face turns from, not towards, the window while you are writing. If your face is towards the window, the oblique rays strike the eye and injure it nearly as much as the direct rays when you sit in front of the window. It is best always to sit or stand, while reading or writing,

with the window behind you, and next to that, with the light coming over the left side—then the light illumines the paper or book, and does not shine abruptly upon the eye-ball. The same remarks are applicable to artificial light. We are often asked which is the best light—gas, candles, oil or camphene. Our answer is, it is immaterial which, provided the light of either be strong enough, and does not flicker.—*Scientific American*.

Pursuits of Knowledge Under Difficulties Illustrated by Anecdotes.

THE cultivation of science and literature has often been united with the most active and successful pursuit of business, and with the duties of the most laborious professions. It has been said of Cicero, that "no man whose life has been spent in study, ever left more numerous or more valuable fruits of his learning in every branch of science and the polite arts—in oratory, poetry, philosophy, law, history, criticism, politics, ethics: in each of which he equalled the greatest masters of his time; in some of them excelled all men of all times. His remaining works, as voluminous as they appear, are but a small part of what he really published. His industry was incredible, beyond the example or even conception of our days: this was the secret by which he performed such wonders, and reconciled perpetual study with perpetual affairs. He suffered no part of his leisure to be idle, or the least interval of it to be lost." These are the words of his learned and eloquent biographer, Dr. Middleton. He says of himself, in one of his orations—"What others give to their own affairs, to the public shows and other entertainments, to festivity, to amusement, nay even to mental and bodily rest, I give to study and philosophy." He tells us, too, in his letters, that on days of business when he had any thing particular to compose, he had no other time for meditating but when he was taking a few turns in his walks, where he used to dictate his thoughts to his amanuenses, or scribes, who attended him. His letters afford us, indeed, in every way, the most remarkable evidence of the active habits of his life. Those that have come down to us are all written after he was forty years old; and, although many of course are lost, they amount in number to a thousand. "We find many of them," says Middleton, "dated before daylight; some from the senate; others from his meals, and the crowd or morning levee." "For me,"

he himself exclaims, addressing one of his friends, "*ne otium quidem unquam otiosum*—even my leisure hours have their occupation."

In modern times the celebrated Sir William Jones afforded the world, in this respect, a like example. All his philosophical and literary studies were carried on among the duties of a toilsome profession, which he was, nevertheless, so far from neglecting, that his attention to all its demands upon his time and faculties constituted one of the most remarkable of his claims to our admiration. But he was, from his boyhood, a miracle of industry, and shewed, even in his earliest years, how intensely his soul glowed with the love of knowledge. He used to relate that, when he was only three or four years of age, if he applied to his mother, a woman of uncommon intelligence and acquirements, for information upon any subject, her constant answer to him was, "Read and you will know." He thus acquired a passion for books, which only grew in strength with increasing years. Even at school his voluntary exertions exceeded in amount his prescribed tasks; and Dr. Thackeray, one of his masters, was wont to say of him, that he was a boy of so active a mind, that if he were left naked and friendless on Salisbury Plain, he would, nevertheless, find the road to fame and riches. At this time he was frequently in the habit of devoting whole nights to study, when he would generally take coffee or tea, to keep off sleep. He had, even already, merely to divert his leisure, commenced his study of the law; and it is related that he would often amuse and surprise his mother's legal acquaintances, by putting cases to them from an abridgement of Coke's Institutes, which he had read and mastered. In after life his maxim was, never to neglect any opportunity of improvement which presented itself.

In India, where he filled the office of Judge in the Supreme Court of Bengal, and where his professional duties were of the most laborious nature, he contrived to do more than ever in the study of general literature and philosophy. He had scarcely arrived in the country when he exerted himself to establish a society in Calcutta, on the model of the Royal Society of London, of which he officiated as president as long as he lived, enriching its Transactions every year with the most elaborate and valuable disquisitions on every department of oriental philology and antiquities. Almost his only time for study now was during the vacation of the courts;

and here is the account, as found among his papers, of how he was accustomed to spend his day during the long vacation in 1785. In the morning, after writing one letter, he read ten chapters of the Bible, and then studied Sanscrit grammar and Hindoo law; the afternoon was given to the geography of India, and the evening to Roman history; when the day was closed by a few games at chess, and the reading of a portion of Ariosto. Already, however, his health was beginning to break down under the climate; and his eyes had become so weak that he had been obliged to discontinue writing by candle-light. But nothing could prevent him from pursuing the studies he loved, while any strength remained to him. Even while confined by illness to his couch he taught himself botany; and it was during a tour he was advised to take for the recovery of his health, that he wrote his learned Treatise on the Gods of Greece, Italy and India—as if he had actually so disciplined his mind that it adopted labor like this almost for a relaxation. His health, after a time, was partially restored; and we find him again devoting himself both to his professional duties and his private studies, with more zeal and assiduity than ever. When business required his attendance daily in Calcutta, he resided at a country-house on the banks of the Ganges, almost five miles from the city. "To this spot," says his amiable and intelligent biographer, Lord Teignmouth, "he returned every evening after sunset, and in the morning rose so early as to reach his apartments in town, by walking, at the first appearance of dawn. The intervening period of each morning, until the opening of court, was regularly allotted and applied to distinct studies." At this time his hour of rising was between three and four. During the vacation of the court he was equally occupied. Writing from Crishna, his vacation residence, in 1787, he says: "We are in love with this pastoral cottage; but though these three months are called a vacation, yet I have no vacant hours. It rarely happens that favorite studies are closely connected with the strict discharge of our duty, as mine happily are; even in this cottage I am assisting the court by studying Arabic and Sanscrit, and have now rendered it an impossibility for the Mahometan or Hindoo lawyers to impose upon us with erroneous opinions." It was these constant exertions, in truth, that gave its chief enjoyment to his life. "I never was happy," he says in this very letter, "till I was settled in India."

This eminent and admirable man, however, at last fell a sacrifice to his zeal in the discharge of his duty; and if it has been accounted a befitting fate for a great captain to die in the field of battle, surely his is to be deemed an equally appropriate and a far more enviable lot, who, after a life, whether of many or of few years, in which he has done enough for his fame, sinks to his rest in the full brightness of a career made glorious by many peaceful triumphs. The greatest literary achievement of Sir William Jones was his last—the digest he undertook to superintend of a complete body of Hindoo and Mahometan jurisprudence.

It was by a persevering observance of a few simple maxims that Sir William Jones was principally enabled to accomplish what he did. One of these, as we have already mentioned, was, never to neglect an opportunity of improvement: another was, that whatever had been attained was attainable by him, and that, therefore, the real or supposed difficulties of any pursuit formed no reason why he should not engage in it, and with perfect confidence of success. "It was also," Lord Teignmouth tells us, "a fixed principle with him, from which he never voluntarily deviated, not to be deterred, by any difficulties which were surmountable, from prosecuting to a successful termination what he had once deliberately undertaken." "But what appears to me," adds his Lordship, "more particularly to have enabled him to employ his talents so much to his own and the public advantage, was the regular allotment of his time to particular occupations, and a scrupulous adherence to the distribution which he had fixed: hence all his studies were pursued without interruption or confusion. Nor can I omit remarking the candor and complacency with which he gave his attention to all persons, of whatever quality, talents or education: he justly concluded that curious or important information might be gained even from the illiterate; and whatever it was to be obtained, he sought and seized it." By these methods it was that he accumulated that vast mass of knowledge, and enabled himself to accomplish those profound and extended labors, which remain, even now that he is dead, for the benefit of us who live, and of those who are to come after us. His is truly to make a short life long—to exist, in spite of death, for unnumbered generations." *change.*

ALWAYS use plain and correct language before children.

For the Schoolmaster.

How to Commence the Study of Geography.

"But is it not beginning at the wrong end?" said I. The gentlemanly agent had been showing me a beautiful slate globe, neatly mounted; had explained to me how easily spherical triangles can be drawn upon it; how the apparent daily path of the sun in the heavens, the points on the horizon where it rises and sets, its altitude and its zenith distance for each day can be mapped out thereon, and I had admired the dexterity with which he handled the globe, as well as the globe itself. 'Twas a pretty toy for a scholar; well used, 'twas a deep well whence to draw much knowledge, for him whose mind, enlarged by study and stored with learning, loves to contemplate the Cosmos, to follow in thought the earth in its majestic march, as with its train of the seasons, day and night, heat and cold, green foliage and glittering snow, seed-time and harvest, it wheels with noiseless step about that great life-giver, the sun. "I shall have one: but then in our district schools the difficult problems of mathematical geography are not generally taught." "With this globe a good idea of latitude and longitude can be given to young children, for we have proved it by trial in the schools; and we have found that children can be made to understand many things about the shape of the earth, latitude and longitude and the use of the globes, that are not generally understood." "Can be made to be granted. But is it not beginning at the wrong end, to use the globe in this way?"

It is easy for a child to repeat what is told him, and to say that the earth is round like a ball, but the conception of the sphericity of the earth is not fully grasped till later in life. And in regard to the use of the globe, I would say, that while it may occasionally be brought into the recitation-room, yet it is not to be depended upon, to any great extent, in teaching geography to children under twelve years old, as it tends to perplex rather than to inform them. With older scholars the globe can be used to advantage, especially for laying down the continents and for getting their relative position, as well as the comparative size of large islands and lakes. How many persons think England to be exactly east of New England, and South Carolina just west from Spain. The shape of that great "ocean-stream," the Atlantic, is not easily learned from seeing portions of it on each of the several large maps of the continents. As all parts of the earth are drawn on a globe on

the same scale, one can determine by the eye, which is the larger, Madagascar or Great Britain, the Caspian Sea or Lake Superior, New England or California.

The same reasons that make black-boards desirable for drawing outline maps from memory, apply with still greater force to slate globes. Their cost will prevent their introduction into our district schools in sufficient numbers to be very useful, for one would be needed by each scholar, or by every two scholars, in the class that used them. When introduced, they should be chiefly used in the way we have just pointed out,—for determining locality and size, actual and relative, and not (in district schools) for solving problems in mathematical geography.

Here comes my class of little boys and girls who are just commencing to study geography.

Let us review. Raise your right hands; your left hands. Show me where the sun rises; where it sets. Point out the East, the West. Stand with your right hand to the East. What is this direction? North. This direction? South.

A black-board, three feet square, is now placed on the teacher's table.

Who can tell me the color of this board? Does any one know what use is made of it? What is it called? Which edge of this board is the Northern edge? Will some one take this crayon and neatly print "North" there? Where now shall we print, "South"? "East"? "West"?

Who knows the name of the street on which we are? Bradford street. Which way does it run? Can you tell me, Mary? What do you say, John? From East to West. I will draw a heavy line, thus, on the board. You may *make believe* that this line is Bradford street. Which way, do you say, that that street runs? Now this line runs from this side, which is?—East,—to that side, which is?—West. Which is the East end of this line? Which is the West end? Will some one print "Bradford Street" on the North side of this line. That will do for to-day.

On the second day let there be, in the first place, a review of the previous lesson. Now let us go on with our exercise.

Such a mark as this shall be for our school house. On which side of Bradford street shall we place it? The North side. You may make such a mark where you think the school house should be. Now, when we go down Bradford

street, what street do we enter? Hope street. Who knows which way Hope street runs? From North to South. How shall we draw a line for Hope street? You may draw it, Charles, if you think you can. That is very well. Who lives on that corner? Mr. Smith. Where shall we put Mr. Smith's house on the board?

High street is now put down on this elementary map by the pupils, who are fast getting interested; the Congregational church is located and several private residences. Now we wish to hang up the board, for we need the table. We will hang it so that we can see the map, with the East side still to the right. Where now is the North? The West? The South?

On the Saturday following these lessons, having already mapped out the streets of the town and put down the more important buildings, the teacher takes her pupils on a walk to the top of a neighboring hill, whence the line and the trend of the shore are noticed, and the direction and relative position of the hills in the neighborhood are carefully marked. These items furnish materials for several lessons in map drawing. On the next Saturday the teacher takes a second walk with her school. Now they carefully note the kind and the state of the crops growing in the fields; the fruit that is raised therein and the cattle also. They soon learn to observe for themselves; the courses of the brooks and of the rivulets are ascertained; they find the names of the prevailing rocks in the neighborhood and their uses; some notice is taken of the more common fishes, birds, insects, forest trees and wild flowers in the town; they inquire what are the chief articles manufactured in the town and whence comes the raw material from which they are made and whither the products are sent when sold. But in the meantime the year rolls on; the change of the seasons is now noticed, and the peculiarities of each.

Something like this, only in practice more lively, is, it seems to me, the true way to begin the study of geography.

And while, during the year, knowledge is obtained by the pupil by observation near his own home, a suitable text-book, descriptive of the countries which he cannot visit, should be given him to study. Let me recommend, for primary schools, and for the lower classes in grammar schools, that beautiful and interesting work, a copy of which is now before me, "Allen's Primary Geography." This volume is got up in a very tasteful style; the binding,

the paper, the print, the coloring and the maps, are all excellent. The teacher who uses this as a text-book will be pleased with it; but she who can catch the wise spirit in which the book is written, who can adopt and carry into practice the suggestions there thrown out, will hear no complaints from her scholars about that, to them, dull study, geography. Beginning with Allen's Primary Geography, acting upon the hints there given, comparing things not seen by them but described in books, with what their own eyes have surveyed, their own hands handled, they will, year after year, go on in that ascending course of study which shall at last, at the other end, usher in the slate globe, and those lofty views of the sun's relation to the physics of the earth, which the mature mind only can comprehend.

x.

From the Providence Evening Press.

The Normal School.

We have to-day shared alike a pleasure and a privilege, in examining the State Normal School, at Bristol.

The town itself is as quiet and beautiful as an Eden, the weather fair, and many things have combined to render the occasion one of interest to all.

Two of the Trustees, the Rev. Dr. Shepard and Wm. Goddard, Esq., with a goodly number of friends, were present, and witnessed and listened to the exercises with interest and delight. We could but note the perfect sympathy, harmony in thought and feeling, between pupil and teacher. There seemed to be a tacit understanding that they were friends; and, as recitation followed recitation, and exercise, exercise, it was pleasing to see how they could be made thoroughly rigorous and exact, and at the same time conducive to the cultivation of the best feelings of the heart; for even mistakes were turned to good account and made to result in good feeling.

The elements of language and of science were made clear and familiar, and their application easy and natural.

While all conduced to good feeling, they also tended to thorough discipline, prompt attention, and vigorous, independent thought.

The training is admirably adapted to fit the pupils themselves to become efficient teachers, and thus to meet the wants widely felt throughout our State.

The attention paid to physical culture reappears in manly frames and in manly thoughts, while the elements of the natural sciences in-

crease the habit and power of observation, and gently and tenderly touch the heart.

With admirable tact the pupils are led to develop their own resources, and to depend upon their own energies, and thus by a system at once thorough and practical to fit themselves for the duties of real life. Would that the value of such a training school could be better known and understood, and that those who propose to teach could feel the importance of such a course of study and discipline.

The masses must be reached, if reached at all, through our common schools; and teachers who would be loved and honored, will find of more value to them than silver or gold, the thorough and practical lessons of such a training school.

We bespeak, then, for our Normal School, the generous attention of our wise legislators, and the confidence and support of the whole community.

VISITOR.

July 11, 1862.

For the Schoolmaster.

The National Uses of War.

[WRITTEN by a member of the Classical Department, Providence High School, for a weekly exercise in English composition.]

Philosophers, public teachers and those who would remove the screen of ignorance from before the eyes of men and disclose to them the beauties and excellencies which reside in a peaceful, orderly and moral life, are wont to point to nature as the great teacher, or rather the book upon which the Great Teacher has written, in living characters, lessons of wisdom and truth. The peaceful man, turning in discontent from the trials and warfare of life, points to the orderly perfection of nature and sighs that humanity should fail to practice the principles which he there translates. He beholds there the pulsation of a single life-heart, the perfect outworkings of a single idea, harmony which can only spring from a single omnipotent mind.

Yet it is because he comprehends perfect results instead of transient means, that he traces alone lessons of peace and prosperity. He forgets that before order existed chaos was; before light darkness was; and before the grand calmness of nature's present aspect there existed, of necessity, the warfare and turmoil of the elements, the fierce shock of the earthquake, the upheaving of a thousand volcanoes and the blackness of night. Thus, when we read na-

ture rightly, we find that the transition from the low to the higher, from the chaotic to the orderly, from ignorance to knowledge, from oppression to justice, is ever attended by mighty upheavings in nature or in society,—by revolution, which is ever the prophet of progress.

To many, the present era in our country's history seems fraught with gloom to the present, with despair to the future; but glancing beyond the dark cloud which, for a moment, shuts from our view the brightness of day, beyond the reach of present tumult, may we not see the calm glory of an eternal sunlight, the silver lining of every cloud, the never-failing promise that the warfare of to-day is but a necessary stepping-stone to the lasting peace of to-morrow? Looking back along the ages of the past, we may trace the progress of events, the loud struggles of humanity toward a higher and nobler life, and we shall find that the end is ever the triumph of justice, of freedom and of right.

Greece, so long as its power was dedicated to the interests of science, of knowledge and of progress, was queen among nations, but fell when it no longer fulfilled these ends. Rome was mistress of the world so long as her laws favored justice and maintained the rights of her citizens; but given over to the interests of tyranny, she fell. Napoleon, leading the armies of French independence to victory over kingly tyranny, prospered; but Napoleon, the tyrant and usurper, ended an unsuccessful career on the rocky shores of St. Helena. So we might trace the same principle through the lives of nations or individuals. True to humanity and progress, they have been happy and prosperous. False to these great principles, they have ultimately fallen, but the good which they accomplished lives forever. Nations may die, individuals may lose power, influence, life itself, but justice and truth are eternal, their foundations are sure and steadfast.

Present warfare is, then, no cause for despair. Even present defeat should not dishearten us. The true end of national existence is the protection of individual rights, in every case the rights of each citizen being limited only by the rights of all. That government which is founded upon any other basis rests upon a mine which, exploding, is liable at any moment to destroy the fabric of its existence, and posterity would attest the justice of its destruction. But firmly founded on the basis of equal justice to all, the powers of the world would fail to destroy it.

The history of Switzerland is a noted example of this fact.

Our object in the present contest is to preserve the life of the nation complete in every part. To accomplish this object all obstacles must be swept away. A union of hands can only exist supported by a union of hearts. A union of hearts is possible only through a union of principles. The true Union heart of the North recognizes the immortal truths of the Declaration of Independence as the corner stone of our government. Therefore, in order that the Union may be made perfect and the national life preserved, the system of slavery, which is the source of all opposition to these principles of liberty, must be destroyed; for, in the words of our noble chief magistrate, "the public mind will never be satisfied until slavery is put in the course of ultimate extinction." The war, indeed, may end and slavery still preserve a nominal existence, but so long as it possesses vitality, so long will it absorb the life-current of the Union, and the one or the other must ultimately perish. In the end the triumph of liberty is sure. May it triumph in the success of the Union arms, not over the ruin of the nation. Then shall future generations bless this war as the source of their country's true glory and prosperity, even as we to-day bless our revolutionary fathers for their trials and our priceless inheritance.

We know that the Great Architect never commences a work in vain, but ever advances it to a glorious termination. We know that He works in all and through all for the true and the right. Therefore let us have faith to believe that out of the chaotic present may come a glorious and happy future; that out of the gloom of America's night may dawn the light of an eternal day—eternal because resting upon a basis of justice, of liberty and of union.

July 10th, 1862.

L. G. J.

TELESCOPES.—A first class telescope costs a good sum, but it is not generally known that, for a few shillings, one may be constructed, the possession of which might add greatly to the enjoyment of family groups, and others, in their admiration of the heavenly bodies. Procure from an optician a thirty-six-inch object glass, (that is, a convex glass which produces a focus of the sun's rays at the distance of thirty-six inches,) and a one-inch eye-glass (that is, a convex glass producing a focus at one inch.) Employ a tin-plate worker to make two tin

tubes, one thirty inches long, and about one and a quarter inches in diameter; the other ten or twelve inches long, and its diameter such that it will just slide comfortably inside the larger. The inside of these tubes should first be painted or otherwise lined with a dull black. At the end of the larger tube an ingenious workman will have no difficulty in securing the object-glass, so that no more than an inch diameter of it shall be exposed, and at the end of the smaller the eye glass must be fixed. When the open end of one tube is inserted into the open end of the other, so that the glasses shall be about thirty inches apart, a telescope will be present which will magnify the diameter of objects thirty-six times; or, in other words, will make heavenly objects appear thirty-six times nearer. With such a telescope the satellites of Jupiter, the crescent of Venus, and the inequalities of the surface of the moon may be discovered.—*New York Commercial Advertiser.*

From the Connecticut Common School Journal.
Requisitions of the Primary Teacher,

BY MELLIE A. VATER.

PRIMARY teachers have been lectured and talked to and written at and advised and discussed ever since teaching first became a profession. "There is nothing new under the sun." Hardest of all is it to suggest anything new upon this subject. One can scarcely hope to present thoughts upon it in such a manner as to attract even momentary attention. If this be gained, it will be only the attention one bestows upon the grasshopper with painted wings. Flying, it indeed appears like a beautiful butterfly; but when it alights and its wings are folded, it is seen to be but a homely grasshopper, and we turn our eyes in search of more attractive objects. So, perhaps, these flying words may win a brief attention, that, were they at rest in sober print, you would not give.

The air of the past is dim, even from the dust our toiling feet have raised. So now to me it is. I invoke the aid of memory, that her wings may dispel the dimness, that the fair light of experience may illumine my present duty.

Some one has said, "No one can be a good primary teacher without having been a child, and remembering how he felt and thought as a child. Some are never children, but old folks, even in the cradle." The primary teacher, more than any other, should be a lover of fun. She is full of interest in childish pleasures and ready

to engage in the sports of the play-ground. She is not too dignified to commiserate children's little troubles. Alive to their joys and sorrows, she is able to inspire them with courage under difficulties, and with gentleness in time of hilarity and pleasure. She reads the human face, and knows when reproof is needed and when gentle exhortation will be most effective. She can tell when a kind word should be given to lessen the pain of a rebuke. She remembers how her baby heart swelled and throbbed under reprimand, and how it hardened into dislike when no soft smile relieved it at the day's close. Drawing on her own experience, she adopts such a manner toward the different children as is best suited to their various dispositions. The child of delicate nerves and fine sensibilities would sink under a correction such as might be given to one of coarser organization; and a word suitable to the former would make no impression upon the latter. A drop of rain which falls upon the earth is immediately absorbed, and makes fruitful the soil; but one that falls upon a rock remains transiently upon its surface, and is presently lost, leaving no effect by which it may be known that it has been there.

It is essential that the teacher be able to adapt herself to all circumstances and dispositions; and in such a way as to escape the charge of partiality. To do this she must be generously just;—not so just as to be ungenerous, nor so generous as to be unjust. Great love should, like a river, move all the machinery of her being. She must love, with an unfeigned love, the human soul, and labor for its elevation. She must always be governed by a deep and abiding desire to improve those in her charge. She will use no iron rules; no Mede and Persian laws, but will avail herself of such means as, in her judgment seem best suited to secure the end desired,—the good of the individual child; and, indirectly, that of the whole school. She will always remember that punishment is *reformatory*; and any chastisement given in a spirit of resentment or retaliation is unworthy of a disciple of Christ. The object of correction is to prevent the repetition of wrong doing. Whatever will secure this, be it little or nothing, it is the teacher's duty to administer; no more, be the offence ever so great; no less, be it ever so small.

The teacher must not only feel a spiritual regard for the well being of her pupils, but she must make them feel it in her. There must be a courteous considerateness, a dignified kind-

ness in all her movements, that they cannot fail to interpret aright. One who cannot make this felt in the community in which she is laboring, will be involved in many unhappy conflicts of will against will. Parents seldom interfere when they know the teacher's heart to be in her work; when they think that she labors, not for the emolument alone, not for favor with trustees and directors, but for the welfare of the children. She who fails to secure cheerful obedience and the support of parents, has sadly mistaken her calling.

We all appreciate a pleasant face. One full of good nature and geniality. One that saddens at our tears, and dimples responsively when we smile. One that always speaks a cheery welcome and diffuses sunshine around.

But our minds are engrossed by other things. We love books. We amuse ourselves with music and painting and drawing. There are a thousand avenues of enjoyment for us that are not yet open to the young. They are far more dependent for happiness upon their friends and associates than we. The child who has a disagreeable teacher, with whom it is obliged to stay six hours daily, has no resource but truancy to escape her. Poor child! Six long, weary hours, with an ugly, stiff, cross woman, who dries up all the sweet waters of its soul, or else turns them to bitterness. Oh! teachers, bring sunshine with your presence. Teach children to come to school gladly by making it attractive! Let grown up men and women bless the teachers of their infancy!

One of the greatest requisites for a teacher is *good health*. No one can be wise in judgment or just in action who is suffering physical pain. An aching head has caused many a tiny hand to smart. Patience and the toothache are alien. They are oil and water, and refuse to go together.

We all remember our first teacher. Happy for us if she were amiable and attractive. Happy if she had no distressing cough and no pain in her side.

Too much stress can not be placed upon this thing of good health in the teacher. Too much care can not be taken to preserve it. Let the teacher look to it that her room is always ventilated and pure, that her shoes are sufficiently thick, that her garments are warm. Let her be as conscientious about taking exercise as she is about paying her washer-woman, about the regularity of her sleep and diet as the settlement of her milliner's bills.

Knowledge should be made attractive. Nay,

more; it should be made a necessity of existence. Else in after years the student hears the college doors shut behind him for the last time with a feeling of pleasure, and simultaneously closes the doors of his mind against the ingress of knowledge. Let a person who in his childhood learned because he had to learn, and was set against all knowledge by an injudicious forcing, read *HERO WORSHIP*; and let one who was first made to desire knowledge and then was fed, read the same. The former finishes the last page with a sense of relief, closes the book and puts it upon the topmost shelf to be opened never again. He has not perceived its beauties, he has not discovered its hidden meanings. He has not even imagined such things to exist; and wonders vaguely, if indeed he can wonder at all, at the lack of connection between the sentences. He can remember nothing particular about it, except that it acted as a powerful opiate.

The other will find rivers of fresh thought for his mind. He will drag to light the diamonds and hold them up to admiration. He will ponder upon this sentence, and upon that, and wonder at their sublime energy. He will have a thousand things to say about it, and a thousand thousand to think.

Do not stuff the young mind, but awake it, and make it hungry for knowledge. To impart information is but a consequence. To develop the power of acquiring knowledge is the primary object of discipline. Let us not crowd the mind, but enlarge its capacity.

The primary teacher should understand so much of natural science as will enable her to draw lessons from familiar objects. The dew upon the grass, the frost upon the window-panes, have already attracted the child's attention. Flowers, pebbles and shells have enticed them into the fields and by the streams.

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Children are eager to hear of great men and of their deeds; of the history of nations and people, of countries and governments. The mind of a child is active in its faculty of retaining, but incapable of abstract reasoning. Youth is the time to lay up stores of knowledge to be used in future years. Hence, it behooves the teacher of children to have an abundant supply of history and biography, and not only have on hand all this, but be continually adding to her store from the teeming libraries of her country.

Lastly, what should be the teacher's moral and religious character? Can pure waters flow from a polluted fountain? Hope not to obtain lessons of holiness from one whose inner life is corrupt. Can a twig grow if broken from the parent stalk? Every man must lose his spiritual life who breaks loose from God. Will a stream flow whose fountain head is cut off? Pure Christianity can not exist in one who has no communication with its Great Source.

For the Schoolmaster.
Political Education.

C.

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Mr. Status. He talks like a lawyer.

Mr. Gradus. He gets nearer the truth than lawyers sometimes do.

Mr. Status. Proceed, Mr. Gradus, proceed.

Mr. Gradus. (Continuing to read.)

"Teach the youth what is meant by 'Court of Common Pleas'; by 'Criminal Court'; by 'U. S. Circuit Court'; by 'U. S. District Court'; and the 'U. S. Supreme Court.' Tell them what cases may come before each of these tribunals. Instruct them in regard to the method of commencing a suit in either court, and of defending the suit brought by another party. Show them the costs of the law, and inform them in respect to the general principles on which a case must rest. Discuss with them the advantages of trial by jury, and the objections to this plan. Consider the question, 'Why should not judges be elected by the people, and for a term of years?' Bring forward the reasons why a prisoner should not tell his own story, giving his testimony fully, whether it crimines himself or not. Trace the progress of law, from the ancient Romans to the American Republic. Show, if it can be shown, the advantages of the courts of the United States over those of Great Britain.

"Study the third article of the United States Constitution, with reference to the federal judiciary, and compare the national courts with the courts of your state. Examine the judicial powers vested in the courts by the State Constitution;—and see what amendments your scholars would suggest, were they members of a convention to revise the Constitution.

"Study, also, in this connection, the laws of evidence, absolute and probable. Discuss the whole subject of testimony, direct and circumstantial.

"Could this be done in all our public schools, it is confidently contended that the next generation would be wiser and better than the present. Had it been done for the last thirty years in all parts of the Union, I hazard nothing in saying that the present wicked, atrociously wicked, rebellion would never have taken place."

Mr. Status. Well carried out. I like it, Mr. Gradus. I like it much. I think his article is a good one. I hope you will put it in *THE SCHOOLMASTER*. But this is hardly to be considered a part of the study of the Constitution.

Mr. Gradus. Indeed, it is. It is simply the study of the third article of the United States Constitution, with the laws and customs naturally and necessarily growing out of it.

Mr. Status. Well, I do not know but I must yield the case in reference to the judicial department, but I think there is little to be said in favor of the executive or legislative departments, miscellaneous provisions, et cetera.

Mr. Gradus. Well, that remains to be seen. We will pursue the subject at our next meeting. I must hasten to take the omnibus yonder. Good evening.

Mr. Status. Good evening, sir. I shall look for the article in the next *SCHOOLMASTER*, with your comments upon it.

Learn to the Last.

SOCRATES, at an extreme age, learned to play on musical instruments, for the purpose of resisting the wear and tear of old age.

Cato, at eighty years of age, thought proper to learn the Greek language.

Plutarch, when between seventy and eighty, commenced the study of Latin.

Boccaccio was thirty years of age when he commenced his studies in polite literature; yet he became one of the three great masters of the Tuscan dialect, Dante and Petrarch being the other two. There are many among us ten years younger than Boccaccio, who are dying of *ennui*, and regret that they were not educated to a taste for literature; but now they are *too old*.

Sir Henry Spelman neglected the sciences in his youth, but commenced the study of them when he was between fifty and sixty years of age. After this time he became a most learned antiquarian and lawyer. Our young men begin to think of laying their seniors on the shelf when they have reached sixty years of age. How different the present estimate put upon experience from that which characterized a certain period of the Grecian republic, when a man was not allowed to open his mouth in political meetings who was under forty years of age.

Colbert, the famous French minister, at sixty years of age returned to his Latin and law studies. How many of our college-learned men have ever looked into their classics since their graduation.

Ludovico, at the great age of one hundred and fifteen, wrote the memoirs of his own times. A singular exertion, noticed by Voltaire, who was himself one of the most remarkable instances of the progress of age in new studies.

Ogilby, the translator of Homer and Virgil, was unacquainted with Latin and Greek till he was past fifty.

Franklin did not fully commence his philosophical pursuits till he had reached his fiftieth year. How many among us of thirty, forty and fifty, who read nothing but newspapers for the want of a taste for natural philosophy. But they are *too old to learn*.

Accorso, a great lawyer, being asked why he began the study of law so late, answered that indeed he began it late, but he should therefore master it the sooner. This agrees with our theory, that healthy old age gives the man the power of accomplishing a difficult study in much less time than would be necessary to one of half his years.

Dryden, in his sixty-eighth year, commenced the translation of the *Iliad*; and his most pleasing productions were written in his old age.

We could go on and cite thousands of examples of men who commenced a new study and struck out into an entirely new pursuit, either for livelihood or amusement, at an advanced age. But every one familiar with the biography of distinguished men will recollect individual cases enough to convince him that none but the sick and indolent will ever say: *I am too old to study.*

From the Illinois Teacher.
Composition-Writing.

By some such simple methods as those already presented, as well as various others that will readily suggest themselves to the ingenious teacher, we shall suppose that our juvenile class have progressed so far in the *ars scribendi* as to possess a sort of confidence in their ability to compose, together with a moderate fluency in the management of the simple requirements of an ordinary essay. They are all able, it is to be presumed, to discuss a suitable subject without any particular previous analysis or preparation for them by the teacher. Their topics are to be assigned, and they are expected, unaided, to expand them in thought and expression.

But what kind of themes shall be given? This is an important question, and upon an instructor's ability to answer it aright depends, in our opinion, in a great degree, his success in this exercise. If you select for them subjects far beyond their mental grasp, or involving ideas entirely foreign to their minds, you are in a fair way to excite disgust at the outstart, and call down juvenile blessings on your head in future years. For pupils at this stage, we scarcely know which is the worse, to make them rely on themselves in despairing efforts to find a theme that will suit, or to distract their worried brains with a theme about which, to use their own language, "they can't say the first thing." The one is Scylla and the other Charybdis; and

both must be avoided. As our first suggestion, then, we might give the following:

Always be sure that the subject is adapted to the capacity of the scholar. If, however, you are a practical joker and fond of indulging in a little fun at your pupils' expense, suppose you distribute a list of topics something like these among your class: "Lydia, you may take Freedom; Jarvis, Virtue; George, Patriotism; Frances, Truth; Nancy, Hope." If woe-begone faces do not picture forth the anguish of terror-stricken hearts, then the countenance is not the mirror of the soul. Such a scene would furnish Willis's Parrhasius with as beautiful a death-agony as that famous painter caught from tortured age. Seriously, however, boys and girls should not be puzzled with abstractions. Their faculties are of too lively, practical, common-place a tendency to look long enough at things that have no substantial existence. It is far better to draw their themes from what they have seen and felt and heard, or from any sources concerning which they may be more or less informed. This leads naturally to our second suggestion:

Select such subjects, frequently, as may be connected with their studies. There are two advantages in this plan: they will feel not entirely at sea—that they are in possession of authorities in the shape of text books which they can consult; and it has the effect of obliging them to reproduce their lessons in their thoughts, and thus impress them on their memories. To illustrate: here is an intermediate class that is studying Parley's History of the World. Now, you may confidently propose as a theme to the majority of them, "The Causes of the American Revolution," knowing that what might otherwise seem too elevated and dignified a question, will not be considered by the scholars at all formidable, for the simple reason that they have heard the teacher expiate on that very point, besides being somewhat familiar with it from previous study. Again: this class is at geography; they have been repeating for months, perhaps, ad infinitum and ad nauseam, that the soil is fertile; the climate mild; agriculture in a backward state; that horses and sheep are raised in abundance; that cotton, figs, oranges and potatoes are the chief productions. Their heads are full of a confused jumble of physical facts. To give them an opportunity of sorting this medley, some times give a geographical topic. What countries have a mild climate, and their fruits? for example, will oblige the pupil

to look over his Mitchell or Cornell, and classify his knowledge under that head.

We shall close by subjoining a sufficient number of historical and geographical themes to indicate our method, merely remarking that the plan may be applied to other studies, and that we shall pursue this branch of inquiry in our next.

GEOGRAPHICAL: Where is coal found, and what kind of countries are they? (So all the minerals.) What do we eat that comes from abroad? What do we eat that comes from home? How would you go to London? describing the route and places passed through. What nations depend chiefly on agriculture, and their customs, etc.? on commerce? Name the principal wild animals of the United States, and briefly describe each; of Europe. The greatest natural curiosities in the world?

HISTORICAL: How many wars between England and the United States, and their causes? What settlements did the Spaniards make in America, and their object? The best monarchs of England. In how many ways has the Indian been made to leave his lands?

It will be seen that both these lists demand some examination of those portions of the respective sciences to which they refer. They are so framed that the pupil can not find his material ready made to his hands in the book before him, but must of necessity search and compare; and in this process lies the drill at which we aim. Be careful that in assigning the subject you are not too laconic, always giving explanations as to the course of thought you wish them to pursue.

The following verse is worthy of the English Augustan age. It was composed by a student of Union College:

"Here lies a dodge who dodged all good,
And dodged a deal of evil;
But after dodging all he could,
He could n't dodge the devil."

REV. E. H. CHAPIN says: "New York has covered the breast of the Union with a shield of gold, and has girt it around with a living bulwark of mighty sinews and bristling steel."

WHEN we read the almost interminable sentences of some writers, we cannot help thinking that their readers are in danger of being sentenced to death.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Glance at South America.—No. 1.

No one of the five grand divisions of the globe possesses a greater variety of interesting subjects for study than South America. Its peculiar situation and great extent render it attractive in a geographical and commercial point of view, while its internal structure, its animal and vegetable productions, furnish the naturalist with labor for a life-time. Its river systems are the most gigantic in the world, affording ample water communication from the Atlantic to the very foot of the Andes. Its plains are second to none, both in extent and variety of productions. Its magnificent forests of tall trees, whose tops are interwoven and bound together into one vast network of overhanging verdure, by the creeping, parasitical plants that twine around their massive trunks; its untold and unknown wealth of silver, gold and diamonds; the unparalleled splendor and sublimity of its mountain peaks and chains, that extend its entire length, and whose dazzling summits flash in the sunlight with more than diamond-like brilliancy; and the towering volcanoes, whose fire-crowned cones rise like beacons upon a rock-bound coast, challenge the world for their magnitude and unrivalled grandeur.

South America extends, in length, from Cape Horn to the Isthmus of Panama, about forty-one hundred and twenty geographical miles; and in width, from Cape St. Roque on the Atlantic, to Cape Blanco on the Pacific, about twenty-seven hundred and fifty miles. Its area is about six and a half millions square miles, and extending through some seventy degrees of latitude, it possesses all the varieties of climate, soil and productions.

In its general outline it is not very unlike North America, and as we examine them more closely we are particularly struck with their similarity. In both, their greatest length is north and south, and their southern portions narrow gradually down towards a point. The Pacific coast of both is very continuous, presenting but few deep bays or good harbors. The Atlantic coast of each is comparatively low and sandy, especially in the southern portions, the latter extending in the same general direction, northeast and southwest; while the northern coasts lie northwest and southeast. A chain of lofty mountains follows the Pacific coast the entire length of both sections, and in the centre of each they are broken into parallel

and transverse ridges, forming longitudinal valleys and elevated plateaus. So near are they to the coast that no large rivers flow into the Pacific. A range of mountains skirts the southern portion of the Atlantic coasts, the Alleghanies in North corresponding to the Brazilian in South America; while the high lands forming the water-shed of the St. Lawrence on its northern side have their counterpart in the Parime mountains, north of the Amazon.

A great central plain stretches almost the entire length of both divisions, differing mostly in climate and productions. The water systems and river basins, although differing in magnitude, are very similar in position. The La Plata and its tributaries drain the southern portion of the great central plain, as the Mississippi does that of North America. The Amazon, with its long arms, covers the central portion, like the St. Lawrence and the great lakes; while the Orinoco will find its counterpart in the water basin around Hudson's and Baffin's bays, and the Magdalena in the McKenzie, which flows into the Arctic Ocean.

The situation of South America is most favorable for the supply of the water which finds its way back to the ocean in such magnificent streams, by catching and condensing all the vapor that the trade winds carry over the land and depositing it in immense quantities upon the mountain sides. By an examination of the map, it will be seen that the Brazilian mountains lie directly across the track of these trade winds, consequently, as they sweep onward, heavily laden with the vast evaporizing products of the ocean, they are carried upwards from one thousand to three thousand feet, and a part of their vapor condensed and discharged upon both sides of these mountains.

The remainder is carried across the plains beyond, until they come in contact with the Andes, where they are all deposited, to be returned again to the sea through the mighty rivers that have their rise there. In the summer season the heat is so much more intense that the condensing isothermal line is considerably more elevated than in the winter, hence the vapors can rise to a greater height and sweep across the plains to the mountains without discharging their contents. Consequently the plains dry up and vegetation almost ceases. But as the condensing point becomes lower in winter, the clouds within the influence of the irregularities of some parts of the surface, discharge their contents upon the plains in great abund-

ance. Then it is that they are covered with luxuriant grass, intermingled with gaudy flowers, thus affording a landscape as wide as the vision can extend clothed in perfect loveliness and beauty. North America, on the contrary, has the condensing line always within the influence of the earth's surface, and hence the whole valley west of the Alleghanies is well supplied with rains the year round.

The Andes form an impassable barrier, over which the clouds cannot pass, consequently rain seldom falls on the west side of the mountains. The writer has seen months on the Pacific coast of South America without seeing a single drop of rain.

In fact, the people there would be almost as much frightened at seeing a shower of rain, so that water would run in the streets, as they would be at a shower of fiery meteors, or the violent eruption of a neighboring volcano, accompanied by a tremendous earthquake. Some of them would doubtless be as incredulous, if told of the immense floods of the Orinoco or Amazon, as was the King of Bomba, when informed that water could be made hard enough to walk upon. G.

The First Silk Mill in England.

ONE hundred and fifty years ago — according to history — there were no silk mills in England, as there are now; and here I quote from an old book the account of how it came:

"The Italians had long been in the exclusive possession of the art of silk-throwing, when about the year 1715, a young mechanic and draughtsman, named John Lombe, undertook the perilous task of visiting Italy to procure drawings or models of the machinery necessary for the undertaking. He remained there some time, and obtained access to the silk-works by corrupting two of the workmen, through whose assistance he inspected the machinery in private; and whatever parts he obtained a knowledge of in these clandestine visits, he recorded on paper before he slept. When his plan was just completed, his intention was discovered, and he was compelled to seek the safety of his life by a precipitate flight into England, where he arrived in safety with the two Italians who had favored his scheme. Fixing on Derby as a proper place for his design, he agreed with the corporation for an island, or swamp, in the river, on which he then erected and established his mill, at an expense of nearly £30,000 (\$150,000), which charge he enabled himself to defray

by the erection and employment of temporary machines in the town hall and other places, before the completion of his great work. In 1718 he procured a patent for fourteen years, to secure the profits arising from his address and ingenuity. But his days verged to a close; for before half this period had elapsed, treachery and poison had brought him to his grave. The Italians whose trade began rapidly to decrease, were exasperated to vengeance, and resolved on the destruction of the man whose ingenuity had thus turned the current of their business into another channel; this they accomplished through the machinations of an artful woman, sent from Italy for that purpose. But though suspicion was almost strengthened into certainty from the circumstances that transpired on her examination, yet, the evidence being indecisive, she was discharged. The death of this lamented artist did not, however, prove fatal to his patriotic scheme; for the machinery was in full action, and the business became every day more successful. John Lombe was succeeded by his brother William, who committed suicide, on which the property devolved to his cousin, Sir Thomas Lombe, who, previously to the expiration of the patent, petitioned Parliament for its renewal; but the legislature, wishing to reward the promoters of national benefit, and at the same time to spread the knowledge of so useful an invention, granted him £14,000 (\$70,000) in lieu of a new patent, on condition that he would suffer a complete model of the work to be taken and deposited in the Tower for public inspection, which was accordingly done. The extensive fabric occupied by the machinery stands upon high piles of oak, doubly planked and covered with stone-work, on which are turned thirteen arches, that sustain the walls. Its whole length is one hundred and ten feet, its breadth thirty-nine feet, and its height fifty-five and a half feet; it contains five stories, besides the under-works, and is lighted by four hundred and sixty-eight windows. The whole of this elaborate machine, comprising about fourteen thousand wheels, is put in motion by a water-wheel, twenty-three feet in diameter."

Such was the first silk-mill in England, and the circumstances under which it was erected.
—*Wes. Chr. Advocate.*

GENIUS AND LABOR.—Alexander Hamilton once said to an intimate friend, "Men give me some credit for genius. All the genius that I have lies just in this; When I have a subject

in hand I study it profoundly. Day and night it is before me. I explore it in all its bearings. My mind becomes pervaded with it. Then the effort which I make is what the people are pleased to call the fruits of genius. It is the fruits of labor and thought."

Mr. Webster once replied to a gentleman who pressed him to speak on a subject of great importance, "The subject interests me deeply, but I have not time. There, sir," pointing to a huge pile of letters on the table, "there is a pile of unanswered letters, to which I must reply before the close of the session (which was then three days off). I have not time to master the subject so as to do it justice." "But, Mr. Webster, a few words from you would do much to awaken public attention to it." "If there be so much weight in my words as you represent, it is because I do not allow myself to speak on any subject till I have imbued my mind with it."

For the Schoolmaster.
Self-Government.

No person can be said to be educated until he has complete self-control. He may have passed through the highest seminaries of learning, possess great knowledge of books, yet, if he has not power over the faculties of his mind and body he is yet uneducated, and needs to graduate in the school of self-discipline. There is too much general government, too little self-government. Men ignore self-control, but are profuse in controlling others. Thus it is, that few do their own duty, but can easily tell what others should do.

Self-government, I consider, should be the chief object in the education of children. Everywhere "grown-up children" suffer for want of power to govern themselves. They commenced existence being governed, were subject to the "stronger arm" of teachers—through childhood and manhood were subject to the governing power of law without, but the elements of the law within were never properly unfolded, so as to afford a sufficient power of self-control. Thus have men been educated, and thus are criminals made and wrongs prevalent. An individual whose temper and passions are not under the control of reason and intellect is an unsafe person, and liable, from the slightest cause, to commit the worst of wrongs. There are but few men but what are easily thrown into a whirlwind of ill-temper. Why is this? Simply because they have not been

educated to govern themselves. Boys often get angry from the slightest provocation, and fight or engage in other acts of wrong; and if men are justified in losing control of their minds, parents and teachers, why should children be censured for doing the same thing? Can the action of a faculty be right in a parent or teacher and wrong in a child? Certainly not. Then, if parents and educators would establish the power of self-control in the mind of the child or pupil, let them first establish it in themselves.

To unfold this desirable requisite in the mind of the pupil, it is necessary that he feels that the teacher has confidence in him and is not afraid to trust him. Many a rude, bad boy has been reformed by feeling that a teacher loved him and imposed confidence in him. Such is the nature of mankind. Let an individual feel that he is suspected by community as being evil, and he is on the highway of recklessness and impropriety. As with men, so with children. Then, if the teacher would develop the elements of the inner-being so as to produce a true and permanent guide to the young existence, let him place confidence in his pupil, even though it may sometimes be mis-placed. I have great confidence in human nature, and strong faith in the child's ability and power to judge of his acts, what is right and what is wrong. Let the children but see that those who govern them are ever actuated by the principles of goodness, justice and right, and they *will* have confidence and love and respect them. I have no faith in the rod to establish anything; I believe it to be a relic of barbarism, and those parents and teachers who so frequently resort to it have hardly emerged from heathenism. There is a more potent weapon which can be used for good, with permanently beneficial results. Let the child's inner consciousness of right and wrong be awakened and unfolded, and let *love* be supreme in the being of the educator, and the rod will be as weak in comparison as a tow string to a well-welded chain. Thus, too, may the habit and power of self-government be established. By a frequent appeal to the child's sense of right and wrong, his conscience will be strengthened, and he will soon learn that there is that within from which he cannot be hid. Every child has the germ within of all that is necessary for his guide and self-government; and it is only necessary for the educator to unfold that germ in harmony with the laws of its being to insure a full and complete self-control. A child thus educated "is a law unto

himself," and is never wanting for a guide to lead him in wisdom's ways and virtue's holy shrine. All other education is superficial and lacks the vital elements of true and permanent happiness. In the education of children, the *permanent good* should always be *first*, present convenience *second*, and the love of *being master* last. Hence, a true teacher will study to know what will be for the *permanent* good of the child and use only such means as will accomplish that end. Thus may all the teachers of our land labor, and they will receive a *permanent* blessing in so doing. E. C.

Centreville, R. I.

The Story of Little Patchy.

FOR BOYS TO READ AND PROFIT BY.

"How are you, little Patchy?" exclaimed William Brooks, a tall, well-dressed boy, as one of his schoolmates, with large patches on the knees of his trousers, came into the yard. "Cloth is cheap down your way, isn't it? Your mother seems very liberal in the quantity she has stuck on your knees. Come, Tim," he continued, turning toward another well-dressed boy, "let us see if Patchy's mother hasn't used glue on his pants, for I don't believe she can sew as nicely as that."

The two boys started toward the trembling child. "You shan't tear my clothes!" he cried, as William caught his finger under the edge of one of the patches, "for mother sat up half the night to mend them, and I'll tell the teacher if you don't let me alone."

"Tell the teacher, will you! I should like to see you telling of *me*! My father would tip you and your mother out of his shanty before you could say Jack Robinson, if you did such a thing as that. Now, go and tell," he continued, as he ripped one of the patches nearly off, leaving Samuel Ward's bare knee exposed.

Samuel, instead of telling the teacher as he had threatened, turned toward home, with the tears running down his rosy cheeks.

"Here, Sam Patch, why don't you tell?" William added, as he followed behind Samuel. "Ah! I knew you wouldn't dare do it. You'd find that shanty a more comfortable place to sleep in to-night than the street, so you'd better trot home and get your mother to mend your clothes; or, if you like it better, you can call at our kitchen door and ask Bridget to go to the rag bag and get you one of my old suits, and then it won't cost your mother so much for patches."

Samuel was naturally an amiable boy, but this was too much for his good-nature to bear; he turned suddenly toward William, with his face flushed with anger, and exclaimed, "You're an ugly, wicked boy, Bill, and when I'm big enough I'll give you a good whipping for this! Yes, I'll do it, if I live to be a man!"

"Why, Patchy, dear, you're really getting smart," he returned, in a sneering tone, "I think we must put you in captain of our company. Boys," he continued, turning toward those who had followed him, "let us give three cheers for Patchy."

The air rang with the shouts of half-a-dozen boys, while Samuel was hastening toward home, holding up the patch so that he might hide his naked knee.

Samuel Ward was the only child of his widowed mother. She lived in a little cottage, owned by William Brooks's father, and situated on the out-skirts of his farm, and supported herself and child by washing and ironing for the villagers. She could earn but little, and was according obliged to economize closely in order to supply herself and child with the common necessities of life. Samuel at this time was eleven years of age, and his mother worked on, hoping that in a few years he would partially support himself and eventually be able to render her some assistance. He was a sensitive boy, and it often required all the courage he could summon to go to school with his thread-bare clothes and naked feet; but his mother used to tell him, if he got his lessons well and obeyed his teacher, it was more to his credit than to be dressed in the finest broad-cloth. He felt the truth of this when he was by his mother's side, but found it hard to realize when his play-fellows were making sport of his appearance. He had on this morning felt reluctant to wear the garments his mother had mended, but he resolved to be a remarkably good boy, and then the teacher's praises would make him forget how he looked. When he reached home he found his mother had gone out to work, but he succeeded in entering the house through a window, and then he sat down and cried as if his heart would break. He could see no use in trying to learn, and he resolved he wouldn't go to school any more, and wouldn't try to be anybody. Then he wished he could die, and his mother, too, and go home to heaven and live with his father, where he wouldn't have to wear patches, and where they would *all love him and be kind to him*. Thus he sat *thinking hour after hour*, when the bell rang

twelve o'clock, and his mother came home. She was very sorry for him, but all the consolation she could offer was to mend his clothes and advise him to go to school in the afternoon, and perhaps William would not be so unkind again.

He obeyed his mother, but he started for school with not half the courage he had in the morning. On his way, when his eyes fell upon the great patches, the tears would begin to chase each other rapidly down his cheeks. He wondered, as he went along, why God let his mother be so poor, when she was the best woman in the whole world, and why he took his father to heaven when they wanted him so much here. Then he thought he ought to love God very much for letting him stay with his mother, because he afforded her so much comfort, she said, and there would be nothing in the world for her to live for, if it was not for him; and he resolved he would treat every one kindly, let them be as unkind to him as they might.

He succeeded in reaching the school-yard without being observed by the boys, and during the recess William Brooks was so busy training his company that he did not find time to tease Patchy as usual. When school closed Samuel hastened home feeling unusually happy, and his patches looked not more than half as big as when he started for school. The next day, however, William began vexing him by calling him all kinds of comical names to make the boys laugh. Samuel bore his trouble remarkably well, and he tried for his mother's sake to control his temper, though at times it was rather hard work. The only retaliation he ever offered was a threat of what he would do when he grew to be a big boy. For this William called him a coward, and dared him to strike a blow then. Samuel never raised his hand to strike, though he was strongly tempted to do so, and he lived to rejoice that he so manfully resisted this temptation.

Ten years passed away, and Samuel, during the time, by industry and perseverance, had gradually risen step after step, until he was a clerk, with a salary sufficient to support himself and his mother comfortably, and able to make a respectable appearance in the world.

William Brooks, during the time, had been admitted as a partner in his father's large mercantile establishment, and the firm of Brooks & Co. did the largest wholesale dry goods business of any house in the city. William, however, was of but little consequence in the firm; he merely had the name of doing business, while his father and his clerks did the

work. He had no inducement to work, for his father supplied all his wants, and he consequently valued money but little more than the air he breathed. While Samuel, early and late, was poring over long pages of accounts, happy in the thought that he was able to support his mother, and stimulated to still further exertions by the hope that eventually he should have the means to purchase her a home, William was riding about the country, neglecting his business, driving fast horses, and wasting his money by betting on their speed. Thus the two young men started on the journey of life.

Ten years more passed away. During this time William's father died, and the care of the business fell upon the son, and with the help of the well-trained and faithful clerks his father left behind, his business went on apparently successful for some years. But when the great financial crisis of 1857 came upon the commercial world, with scarcely a day's warning, William found he must sink with the rest. The banks refused to discount his notes, and he could raise no money on either his real estate or personal property. It fell like a terrible blow upon him, when he realized that the property which his father had spent a lifetime in accumulating must all be sacrificed to meet a note of only a few thousand dollars.

The morning after the papers had announced his failure, he sat in his office a completely subdued man. He looked back upon his past life, and plainly saw where he had erred. He had wasted his time and money, and had lived to no purpose whatever but pleasure, when he might at least have secured a knowledge of business during these misspent years. Now he had nothing to fall back upon, and bitterly did he regret his folly. As he sat there with a pale, anxious countenance, the door opened, and a stranger entered.

"This is Mr. Brooks, is it not?" he asked as he came toward the desk where William sat.

"It is," he replied, looking up, expecting to see one of his creditors.

"William Brooks?"

"That is my name."

"You stopped payment, I saw by yesterday's papers," the stranger continued, taking an offered seat.

"Yes," he sadly replied, "all my property must be sacrificed to meet a note of only a few thousand."

"How much do you need to meet your present payment?"

"Six thousand dollars to-day, would save me."

"What security can you give?"

A ray of hope lighted up William's countenance as he replied, "Security on the best real estate in the city—worth four times that amount. Have you any idea where the money can be raised?"

"I think I can accommodate you. Seeing a notice of your suspension, and having money I wished to invest, I have traveled over fifty miles this morning in order to help you out of your troubles."

"To whom am I indebted for this act of kindness?" he exclaimed, as he passionately grasped the stranger's hand.

"You do not remember me; but we were school fellows twenty years ago; my name is Ward—Samuel Ward."

"Samuel Ward," he repeated, "the name has gone from me. 'Tis strange I should forget so true and faithful a friend."

"You have not forgotten *Little Patchy*, have you, who used to go to the Academy in Brookdale, and how the boys used to tease him and laugh at the great patches on his clothes and he used to run home crying to his poor mother? At any rate, Patchy remembers you. I used then to think, if I lived to be a man, I would have my revenge; but manhood has changed my feelings; and when I saw the notice of your failure, I concluded the best punishment I could give you, and the one you would be the most likely to remember, and at the same time afford me the most satisfaction, would be to lend you a helping hand in the midst of your misfortunes."

"This is too much for me," William returned, his eyes filling with tears; "it is truly heaping coals of fire upon my head; but I trust," he continued, in a tremulous voice, "that I never shall forget the lesson this noble act teaches me, that the most effectual punishment you can give an enemy, is to return good for evil."

"Yes, and if you have children," Samuel added, "teach them to treat kindly the poor and despised; warm and generous hearts beat as often beneath a thread-bare coat as beneath the finest broadcloth. If what I have done this morning causes one of our worthy poor to be more kindly considered, I shall be well repaid for all my trouble."

A few hours after William received his money and Samuel his mortgage, and from that day they have been warm and faithful friends; and William, through Samuel's influence, has become a wiser and a better man.

For the Schoolmaster.

Orthography.

If the science of Orthography teaches more than the correct writing of words, then it teaches more than its name implies. Were this limit assigned to it, it would be one of the most essential branches of grammar. But grammarians appear to have stumbled about clumsily, very much in the dark, when searching for materials to make up this element of their science. Whether there be in any other subject so much that is useless, so gross instances of awkwardness in arrangement, so thoroughly mis-shapen a mass of matter for the digestion of young students in text-books in any science, is really to be questioned. It seems as though grammar-makers had settled on this topic last, much as book-makers in general accomplish their prefaces, and in sheer despair had crowded in, out of all the old dry grammars within their reach, whatever concerning letters, whether of their sounds, their form, their combinations or their powers, that they could lay their hands upon. How a pupil, by any natural mode of reasoning or by any adaptation of facts, is ever to learn how to spell or how to pronounce by any such method as that he has had before him, it is quite impossible to see.

In part, this confusion of material is explained when it is known that the old grammarians, especially the Latin, assigned to the general science we are writing upon, not only the writing but the reading and the speaking of the language with correctness and propriety. And under these last two heads—reading and speaking—now left so far out of view by the presence of well-arranged dictionaries as to render the treatment of the topic of pronunciation unnecessary in grammar books—nothing is prominently said in our grammars after the topic of Orthography is passed. Yet the old remarks on pronunciation are retained, and so we have words dissected into every imaginable shape and letters classified after every sort of design. There are vocals, subvocals and aspirates; long vocals and short vocals, continuous vocals and explosive vocals, and so on as to the sound of letters. Then there are vowels and consonants, under which subjects the grammarist sagely remarks that vocal letters and vowels are identical, and that subvocals and aspirates are identical with consonants. There are, too, silent letters and equivalents. And all this concerning *letters when standing alone!*

Take breath, kind reader. Another branch of the science yet awaits—the combination of letters. Here are diphthongs, proper and improper; proper and improper triphthongs; the union of vowels and consonants; and next is the general subject of syllables. Of syllables there are monosyllables and dissyllables and trisyllables—nay, shudder not, if you know perchance the Greek numerals, reader—the numbering of syllables extends no further. All other words are merely poly- (many) syllables.

But I cannot consent to weary the patience of my reader by giving any further indications of the subject brought forth in the books. I believe that he can discern very little by studying Orthography with care in the books themselves, that is in such form as to be really adapted to lead any one directly towards attaining power over language if he has not already gained much more of such power than is presupposed to be the attribute of one scarcely commencing grammar. True analysis is proper and exceedingly useful. Diligent pursuit of a science into its remotest and minutest subdivisions is a primary method of attaining a knowledge of it; yet of what possible benefit can it be for a student to learn such varied and exhaustive analyses as these and to commit to memory, the deductions of mature minds while most that he learns must after all be of no possible use to him, and a great portion of all these scientific and very minute conclusions are dropped at the threshold of the next science and afterwards scarcely thought of at all?

The argument that the arrangement of topics is beneficial since it leads him to understand future subdivisions of Parts of Speech, is too shallow for any but mere apologists. It can be applied to the most useless of pursuits and is about as conclusive as that which would commend proficiency in the game of dominoes since it cultivates the mathematical powers. Leave out, do you say, reader, the whole topic of Orthography till the next topic, of Etymology, be mastered? This would be wiser than to wait too long in the mere introductory portions of grammar, but when shall it be introduced? It were better to restrict the subject to its proper limits, to the study of the form of words; and to institute, not before, but after or along with Etymology, a thorough drill from spelling-book or dictionary on the form of words and on the simplest kind of syllabication.

HENRY CLARK.

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. Cady, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Sphinx *Quinquemaculatus*.

A few days since I received a small package by express. It was brought to the door of my school-room by a lad who was ignorant of the source whence it came, and said there was "nothing to pay." A free package! Moderate in size—cylindrical in form—probably a token from some friend—perhaps a veritable *bijou*! I remove the ligature, "*incidere linum*." I find a note enfolding a casket—no, not of silver, but, for its purpose, just as good. The note is in the hand of a much valued friend. I read:

"Last evening I found a strange fellow on my strawberry bed." (*a thief, no doubt, thought I.*) "and gave him different lodgings." (*Right! He deserved a place in the "lock-up."*) "I put him gently into a pasteboard match-box," (*what! a thief in a match-box?*) "but not liking his accommodations, I suppose he gnawed a hole through the box and escaped." (*Let the exclamations pass.*) "I recaptured him, however, and not knowing what he is, either species or genus, I send him to you. If you can make anything of him you are welcome. He may be a common bug, but he is new to me."

And now what can the "strange fellow" be? On opening the box I found what was intended for a magnificent specimen of the *Sphinx quinquemaculatus*, or five spotted Sphinx, with its wings but partially developed. It was to me a very familiar acquaintance; but as it was new to my excellent friend, and may be equally so to some others who look with a little curiosity into the naturalists' corner in THE SCHOOLMASTER, I will venture to detail the manner in which I obtained my first intelligible acquaintance with this variety of the Sphinx.

Some eight years since, among some other entomological experiments, I resolved to learn the history of the large green worm which is so frequently seen upon the vines of the potato and tomato. At that time I had no means of information at hand except experiment. It was near the close of July when I selected two of these worms, which I found upon my tomatoes, and carefully fed them up to the time of the commencement of the summer vacation. At this time they were three inches or more in length, marked with the usual oblique whitish stripes along their sides, and wearing the peculiar thorn-like appendage upon the tail, which characterizes the species; but they did not seem at all ready to exhibit any new development of form or nature. Here was a dilemma. I wished to be absent with my family during a large portion

of the vacation, and was quite at a loss what to do with my pets. I finally hit upon an expedient. There was standing in my garden a good-sized flower pot with a thrifty tomato plant growing in it. I took this, placed it in a pail partly filled with water, to keep the plant from withering, and carefully guarding the worms from being drowned by covering the space between the flower pot and the pail with thick paper, I placed them upon the plant, set the pail with its contents into a sink in a small pantry containing a window, shut the door and left them to enjoy their banquet in security. On returning from my visit I lost but little time in neglecting to look after my worms. They were nowhere to be found. They had devoured nearly all the leaves and young fruit upon the tomato plant, which was still fresh and putting forth praiseworthy efforts to recover from its terrible scathing, but they had vanished and not left a trace behind. I searched every nook and crevice from topmost shelf to remotest corner. There was no possible place of escape, and yet they were fairly gone. One only place remained. I had not searched the flower pot. Carefully I began to remove the earth, and had not proceeded far before I discovered a brown chrysalis with an appendage, bending round from the head to the breast, resembling the handle of a jug. Soon I discovered another.

One part of the enigma was solved. Clearly it was the habit of the worms to retire into the earth before passing into the form of chrysalids. In the month of October I went to the city of Savannah, Georgia, to spend a year in the poetically "sunny South," but did not forget to take my chrysalids along with me.* In due time they gave forth mature insects, earlier than they would have done at the North, and thus the mystery was solved. During my residence in Savannah I captured several of the same species, and also two or three specimens of the splendid Carolina Sphinx, or Hawk-moth, as they were poisoning themselves on the wing, just at nightfall, while sipping honey from the flowers, with their proboscis extended from three to five inches in length.

I have often found the chrysalids of these moths when spading up the earth in spring. The mature insects make their appearance in the month of July, and may be seen, after dusk, poisoning themselves on the wing among the flowers while sucking the honey with their excessively long proboscis. While thus engaged their appearance so much resembles that of a humming bird that they might

*I congratulate myself that this was before the days of secession. The months I spent there were months of pleasure and romance. They could not be so now. It is not pleasant to think that the beautiful city, with whose entire vicinity I had become familiar in my frequent rambles in search of some new tree or shrub, some novel plant or insect, is trodden by the feet of traitors. But it shall not be always thus.

be easily mistaken by a careless observer. Hence they are often designated by the name of humming-bird moths. Their distinctive features are so marked that they are not easily mistaken. Their wings are long and narrow, and terminate almost in a point. Their structure is much stronger than that of most of the Lepidoptera, and they are moved by very powerful muscles. Their motions are so rapid and so forcible, that when captured, it requires no inconsiderable effort to hold them in the fingers. Indeed, I have sometimes experienced a sensation very much like that produced by a moderate galvanic circuit, while holding them between the thumb and finger, owing to the intense rapidity of the muscular action by which they were attempting to escape. Their bodies are thick, tapering gradually from the thorax to the extremity of the abdomen, thus imparting to the insect a remarkable gracefulness of form. The *Sphinx guinequemaculatus* is one of the largest of the genus, its wings measuring very nearly five inches from tip to tip, when expanded. It derives its specific name from five orange-colored spots on each side of the abdomen. The ground color is gray, marked with lines and bands of a darker color.

The name of the Sphinx is said to have been given to this group of insects by Linnæus, in consequence of a fancied resemblance between some of their caterpillars, when at rest, and the Egyptian Sphinx. This resemblance is effected by the peculiar manner in which they will support themselves upon their hind feet while they shorten and elevate the fore part of the body in a curved position, and remain motionless for hours. Hence the name of Poplar dogs, by which they are familiarly known among the boys. They are quite destructive when they attack potatoes or tomatoes in large numbers, in consequence of their large size,—more than three-fourths of an inch in diameter, and from three to four inches in length—and their extreme voracity. Perhaps the best way to diminish their ravages is to destroy, individually, each caterpillar, moth and chrysalis that can be found.

Most of the Sphinges are nocturnal in their habits. There is one exception, however, sufficiently interesting to merit special attention. This is the *Sesia pelagus*, which, as it passes from flower to flower in the bright sunshine, and poises itself on the wing while extracting their nectar, so nearly resembles a small hummingbird as to be almost certainly mistaken for one by those who are not familiar with it. Its brilliant colors of shaded and changeable green, olive, maroon and red, its narrow and delicately veined wings with transparent centres, and the variegated tuft of feathers which terminate its tail and which it spreads out like a fan while on the wing, render it one of the most beautiful and interesting of the insect races. Though not very abundant, the careful observer will be pretty certain to see it during the hours near the

meridian, in the month of August, passing rapidly among the flowers. I have seen it most frequently gathering honey among the clumps of *Phlox paniculata*, so common in our gardens. When expanded they measure about two inches.

The *Ægerians* constitute another group among the Sphinges scarcely less interesting than the last. They are very destructive in their habits. Their colors are very brilliant, and they are characterized by the clear wings and tufted tails which distinguish the *Sesia pelagus*. Their size is less, and their general shape bears considerable resemblance to that of a wasp or bee. One variety I have been wont, for years, to capture among the cucumber and squash vines. They were objects of interest to me specially on account of the abundant fringes of black and orange with which their hind legs are clothed. It did not occur to me to inquire into their partiality for the cucumbers and squashes. I had often seen the vines with their leaves withering, day after day, and had traced the effect to the ravages of worms entering near the root and eating out the centre of the vine. I did not, however, associate their ravages with the visits of the beautiful moths. The following passage from Harris' elegant work on insects, in which he gives a beautiful colored representation of the moth, and wood cuts exhibiting the larva and cocoon, explains this in a manner quite satisfactory:

"During the month of August, the squash and other cucurbitaceous vines are frequently seen to die suddenly down to the root. The cause of this premature death is a little borer which begins its operations near the ground, perforates the stem, and devours the interior. It afterwards enters the soil, forms a cocoon of a gummy substance covered with particles of earth, changes to a chrysalis, and comes forth the next summer a winged insect. This is conspicuous for its orange-colored body spotted with black, and its hind legs fringed with long orange-colored and black hairs. The hind wings only are transparent, and the fore wings expand from one inch to one inch and a half. It deposits its eggs on the vines close to the roots, and may be seen flying about the plants from the tenth of July till the middle of August. This insect, which may be called the squash-vine *Ægeria*, was first described by me in the year 1828, under the name of *Ægeria cucurbitæ*, the trivial name indicating the tribe of plants on which the caterpillar feeds."

To this same group belongs "the pernicious borer" whose ravages have so often proved fatal to the peach trees. Another variety attacks the currant bushes, eating out the inside of the shoots and destroying them. Others still attack the pear tree and other useful trees, shrubs and plants.

I. F. C.

SIR ISAAC NEWTON said: "If I have any superiority over other men, it is due to nothing but industry and patient thought."

The Study of Nature.

ABSTRACT OF A LECTURE DELIVERED BY PROF.
AGASSIZ, AT THE STATE HOUSE, ALBANY, N. Y.

[It is to be desired that all teachers, by their institute practice and in private study, should enable themselves to uphold to children some of the pages of the Book of Nature, as unfolded everywhere around us.

Is a school dull, this will create an interest at once.

Is there annoyance and waste from tardiness? Morning talks and illustrations from the vegetable, the insect or the mineral world, will soon cure it. Lessons of this kind are easily comprehended. They are the natural food of the mind. It feeds and grows upon them. The greatest philosophers, statesmen and poets have been men who loved and communed closely with nature. She preserves her votaries both from corruption and ennui.—*Ex.*]

Ladies and Gentlemen : I have been invited to address you this evening upon the subject of an Early Study of Nature as a means of developing the faculties of the young and of leading them to a knowledge of the Creator. I wish to awaken in you the conviction that the knowledge of nature in our days is the very foundation of the prosperity of states; that the study of the phenomena of nature is among the most potent means of developing the human faculties; and that on these accounts it is highly important that that branch of education should be introduced in our schools as soon as practicable. To satisfy you how important the study of nature is to the community at large, I need only allude to the manner in which, in modern times, man has learned to control the forces of nature, and to work up the materials which our earth produces. The evidence of the importance of that knowledge for the welfare of man is everywhere open before us; and that there is hardly any training better qualified to develop the highest faculties of man,—can I allude to a better evidence than to that venerable old man, Humboldt, who is the embodiment of the most extensive human knowledge in our days, and who has acquired that position, and who has become an object of reverence throughout the world, merely by his devotion to the study of nature? If that be true, then, that a knowledge of nature is so important for the welfare of states, and can train men to such a high position among men by the development of their best faculties, how desirable that such a study should form a part of all education. I believe that the introduction of the study of natural history as a branch of the most elementary education is what can be added to our already admirable system. The only difficulty is to find teachers equal to the task, and the task is no small one. For, in my estimation, the elementary instruction is the most difficult of all.

It is much easier to deliver a lecture to a class of advanced students than to take up the young and teach them the elements. And I believe it is still a mistaken view with many, that a teacher is always sufficiently prepared to impart the first elementary instruction to those entrusted to his care. I think nothing can be further from the truth, and that, in entrusting the instruction of the young in their first beginnings to incapable teachers, we lose frequently the opportunity of unfolding the best minds to the highest capacities, by not attending at once to their wants. A teacher should always be far in advance of those he teaches, and there is nothing more painful than to be obliged to repress those embarrassing questions which the pupils may make, and which may be beyond our reach. The teacher who crams the day before that which he teaches the next day, is never up to his task. He must be capable of facing his class with a consciousness that he is fully competent to instruct in that which is the task of to-day, and to answer any question that may be asked about that which is before him. Not only that, but he should feel capable of fostering these questions, of suggesting them, of rendering his whole class so inquisitive, so desirous of being taught, that there should be no limit to the amount of necessary information which he can give, beside the repetition of the task assigned for to-day. And it is only the teacher who is far advanced beyond his class who can do that. He who is only equal to his task is not to be entrusted with such an important trust. He must be able to instruct so that the information which he gives at the time may become connected with that which the pupil is to learn afterward; and so I say that the teachers of the elementary school should be selected from among the ablest. They should be the best teachers. They should be capable of rendering the study attractive, interesting, and so pleasant, indeed, that the hour for the school should be the hour expected with anxiety by the scholar, instead of the hour dreaded as bringing something imposed by duty, and not desirable in itself.

This is particularly the case with reference to the study of natural history. The teacher who would undertake successfully to teach the elements of that science, must be so far advanced, that he knows how to select those topics which are particularly instructive, and best adapted to awaken the interest, to sustain it, and to lead it forward to the undertaking of more difficult questions. But it is not only in the study of natural history that it is desirable to have good teachers. I say that even to teach the A, B, C, or how to read and write, a teacher should know a great deal. And I can see that it requires that inexhaustible thirst for knowledge, which is imparted to human nature, to have children sustain their interests in study when the elements are imparted to them in the manner in which they are imparted. Can you conceive any-

thing more dry and less attractive than the learning of the twenty-four signs which are called letters, and of combining them in syllables and then into words—and all in the most mechanical and humdrum way, as if there was no sense in it? Yet there is a deep sense in it, and there is in every series of letters, material for the most attractive and the most instructive information, if it was in the heads of the teachers. Let them show how men have learned to write their thoughts in words; how, after writing was invented, in what way it was used in the beginning, how it has been shortened into the abbreviations made use of to write words as they fall from the speaker's lips, and which are read with as great certainty as if the writer had them before him already written and had only to copy them; and then the children will be eager to learn them, and be ready to avail themselves of the advantages which they possess. But I say that in order to create that interest in them, they ought not merely to be taught mechanically that such a figure is A, and that another is B, and another is D, and so on, but they ought to be shown how men came to think of writing; they ought to be shown that writing, or the letters, are only symbols to express thoughts, and that the earliest and simplest ways of recording those thoughts, was to represent the object to the eye. Let a class of children be before their teacher, and let the teacher ask them how they would convey to others what they have in their minds. Let him ask how they would convey an idea of what they had seen during the day. They go along the street, they have seen houses and trees and wagons, men, women and children; and now let them, the very first day they go into school and sit on the benches, attempt to represent what they have seen. Let them all be called upon to make figures of what they have seen. They have seen trees, and let them represent a tree, and while they make that attempt, let the teacher tell them what different kinds of trees they are, and the difference which exists between trees; let him explain that there is a variety of trees, and let him represent the elm, for instance, or the pine, for the elm has a characteristic branch so peculiar that it can never be mistaken for a pine; and then again, the maple will be represented in a way entirely different from either the pine or the elm, arising from the very nature of the tree. On another day, let some implement of the household be brought forward and its parts analyzed and represented in the same manner, and when they have been drawn accurately and minutely, and copied on the slate, let them be represented, as it were, in short-hand, by a figure which will come in the simplest outline nearest the object it was meant to represent. And in course of time, the pupils will have collected thousands of different images representing things with which they have become acquainted, all of *which will be familiar to them*; and being called upon to represent one of those objects, they will

readily make signs therefor; and, as they advance in that way, it will be found that these signs have become so numerous that it is trying to have so many things recorded; and then will be the time to show the children that this can be done in a more expeditious way—that we need not, in order to record all the things with which we are familiar, to have as many signs as there are different things; but that every thing has a name, and having received a name, instead of recording the thing itself, we may record the name.

We may record the sound of which we express the thing, and to record the sound we may agree to let one of these signs which we use for elm represent a part of the sound of elm—the E; we may use one of the signs by which we represented the maple for a part of the sound of maple—the M; we may use one of the signs for representing the pine to signify a part of the sound of the word pine—the P; and then we can combine these signs so as to represent the sounds with which these objects are designated. That is the way in which the letters were invented. The letters we use now may be traced back to Phœnicia; they are in imitation of the hieroglyphics of Egypt, and if the teachers only knew them, they would know at once that these three letters which we read b-a-g, are only a representation of signs made in the manner in which these signs were made by the Phœnicians nearly thirty-five hundred years ago. They were borrowed by the Phœnician merchants from the Priests of Egypt, and then carried in their business transactions all over the eastern world, and came down, through the Greeks, in our alphabet. Would not these things interest a child? Would they not very soon learn their A, B, C, and while learning it, learn a great deal more which would be useful in their lives afterward? And what may be done for the A, B, C, ought to be done in every branch of study. It ought to be done in the study of astronomy, it ought to be done in the study of geography, it ought to be done in the study of natural history.

A mistake in our elementary education is that we teach everything in the same way. We resort to books, as if everything was to be learned from books, and from books alone. I will speak from personal experience. I have been a teacher since fifteen years of age, and am a teacher now and I hope I shall be all my life. I do love to teach, and there is nothing so pleasant as to be placed in a position to develop the faculties of my fellow-beings, who, in their early age, are entrusted to my care; and I am satisfied that there are branches of knowledge that are better taught without books than with books, and there are some cases where it is so obvious that I wonder why it is always to books that teachers resort when they would teach some new branch in their school. When we teach music we do not learn it by heart or commit it to memory, but we take an instrument and learn to play it. When we study natural history, instead

of books, let us take specimens, stones, minerals and crystals. When we would study plants let us go to plants themselves, but not to books describing them. When we would study animals let us have animals before us, and not go to books in which they are described.

In geography let us not resort to books, but let us take a class and go out into the field, and point out the hills, valleys and rivers, and show them what are accumulations of water and expanses of land; and then, having shown them that, let us bring representations of what they are to learn, that they may compare them with what they know, and the maps will have a meaning to them. Then you can go on with the books, and they will understand what these things mean, and will know what is north and east and south, and will not merely read the letters N. E. S. W. on a square piece of paper, thinking that England and the United States are about as large as the paper they learn from. When I was in the College of Neufchatel, I desired to introduce such a method of teaching geography. I was told it could not be done, and my request to be allowed to instruct the youngest children in the institution was refused. I resorted to another means, and took my own children—my oldest, a boy of six years, and my girls, four and one-half and two and one-half years old, and invited the children of my neighbors. Some came upon the arms of their mothers; others could already walk without assistance. These children, the oldest only six years old, I took upon a hill above the city of Neufchatel, and there showed them the magnificent peaks of the Alps, and told them the names of those mountains, and of the beautiful lakes opposite. I then showed them the same things on a raised map, and they immediately recognized the localities, and were soon able to do it on an ordinary map. From that day geography was no longer a dry study, but a desirable part of their education.

You may do the same in astronomy. You may use the lamp in the room to show them how a body illuminated may cast its light on others, and how the side opposite is in darkness. Let the teacher turn about in front of the light, and he will show that light is shed on any part of his body as he presents it, and in that way he can teach a child of four years the relative position of the earth and sun. You can go further, and show the complicated motion of the moon, simply by showing them that while you turn around yourself, a piece of paper which you hold may also turn around you, while you radiate about the central light which represents the sun: and in that way the whole movement of the solar system may be explained in a manner pleasant to the youngest child.

But I have undertaken to address you upon the desirableness of introducing the study of natural history in our schools, and of establishing that in-

struction as a means of developing the faculties and as a means of leading the child to the knowledge of the Creator, and I will now turn to the point of my address.

Natural history, I have already said, should be taught from objects and not from books, and you see at once that this requires teachers who know these objects, and not merely teachers who can read and see whether the lesson set has been committed faithfully to memory. The teacher must know these objects before he can teach them. And he ought to bring them into the school, and to exhibit them to the scholars, and not only that, but to place them in the hands of each scholar.

Some years ago I was requested by the Secretary of the Board of Education, to give some lectures on natural history to the teachers assembled in different parts of the State, in those interesting meetings known as teachers' institutes; and I had been asked to give some instruction on insects, that the teachers might be prepared to show what insects were injurious to vegetation and what are not, and that they might impart the information to all. I thought the best way to proceed would be to place the objects in their own hands, for I knew that mere verbal instruction would not be transformed into actual knowledge, that my words would be carried away as such, and that what was needed was the impression of objects. I therefore went out and collected several hundred grasshoppers, brought them in, and gave one into the hand of every one present. It created universal laughter; yet the examination of these objects had not been carried on long, before every one was interested, and instead of looking at me, looked at the thing. And they began to examine and to appreciate what it was to see, and see carefully. At first I pointed out the things which no one could see. "We can't see them," they said. "But look again," said I, "for I can see things ten times smaller than these;" and they finally discerned them. It is only the want of patience in the difficult art of seeing, that makes it so much more difficult.

The power of the human eye is very great, and it is the want of training which sets so narrow limits to its boundaries. After having examined one object minutely—one of those objects which can be seen everywhere—take another, one which has some similitude to it. Analyze its parts, one after the other. Point out the difference which exists between this and that examined before, and you are at once on the track so important in all education, which exists in comparisons. It is by comparisons that we ascertain the difference which exists between things, and it is by comparisons, also, that we ascertain the general features of things, and it is by comparisons that we reach general propositions. In fact, comparisons are at the bottom of all philosophy. Without comparisons we never could go beyond the knowledge of isolated, disconnected facts. Now, do you not see

what importance there must be in such training; how it will awaken the faculties, how it will develop them, how it will be suggestive of further inquiries and further comparisons, and as soon as one has begun that sort of study, there is no longer any dullness in it. Once imbued with the delight of studying the objects of nature, the student only feels that his time is too limited in proportion to his desire for more knowledge. And I say that we can in this way become better acquainted with ourselves.

We can understand our own nature, our relations to the world at large in a better manner. We can know how we are related to the whole animal kingdom, if we once begin that kind of comparison. At first, it may seem difficult to find any resemblance between man and quadrupeds, between quadrupeds and birds, between birds and reptiles, between reptiles and fishes; and if we were to attempt to compare a fish to a man, it would seem preposterous. And yet the two are constructed on the same plan. The same elements of structure which we may see in the fish are, only in a more lofty combination, presented again in the man; and it may be shown in the simplest manner that there is one single gradation leading up from the fish to the noble stature of man. And these comparisons are the best means of developing all our faculties, because they call out not only the powers of observation, but the ability of man to generalize, and at the same time to discriminate. They call into effect all those abilities which distinguish men from men, which give men power over other men, and give men the power of discriminating judiciously, and of combining properly all the ability of discerning differences, as well as resemblances; one constitutes the art of observing, while the other constitutes the art of the philosopher.

The difficult art of thinking can be acquired by this method in a more rapid way than any other. When we study logic or mental philosophy in textbooks, which we commit to memory, it is not the mind which we cultivate—it is the memory alone. The mind may come in, but if it does in that method, it is only in an accessory way. But if we learn to think, by unfolding thoughts ourselves from the examination of objects brought before us, then we acquire them for ourselves, and we acquire the ability of applying our thoughts in life. It is only by the ability of observing for ourselves, that we can free ourselves from the burden of authority. As long as we have not learned how to settle a question for ourselves, we go for authority, or we take the opinion of our neighbor; that is, we remain tools in his hands, if he chooses to use us in that way, or we declare our inability of having an opinion of our own. How shall we form opinions of our own otherwise than by examining the facts in the case; and how can we learn these facts, which are unchangeable, those facts over which *man, with all his pride, can have no control?*

Man cannot make the sun to start off and move in space; man cannot change the principles of the solar system; he cannot make plants sprout out of their season; he must take the phenomena of nature as they are. They should teach him humility and truth. He should learn that what exists in nature is true, and that to learn to follow truth he must bow to what is; he must bow to what he cannot change from the nature of things; but at the same time, he learns how to ascertain what is, and how things are; and while he learns that, he acquires a power which afterwards can neither be checked nor lessened; and which is ever improving, in proportion as opportunity for further observation is increasing. I will select a very trivial case to show you in what way we may reach a question from the observation of special facts. Let us take an earthworm. [Prof. A. here drew on the blackboard representations of the things described.] It is a cylindrical elongated animal, with transverse rings all along. Upon each of these rings are stiff bristles, standing out in opposite directions, by the motion of which the animal moves along.

Let us examine the lobster. Here we have another animal, with a body, tail, leg, and a variety of appendages in the shape of claws and legs. It has no resemblance to the earthworm. Let us examine the wasp or bee. Here we have an animal still different. It has wings, and it presents three different regions of the body, and yet it is constructed on the same plan as the others. Let us see what they have in common. There are a succession of rings, one upon the other. If we examine the maggot, from which the wasp is hatched, we shall find that it much resembles the earthworm, but as it grows, there are fewer rings round the body. [The similarities and differences of the three animals were described at length.] They have, at the commencement, these things in common—a cylindrical body, divided into a number of joints, which are moveable one upon the other. We have, therefore, reached the general proposition, that all these animals have a common structure; that they are all built upon a common plan, and that the elements of the structure, the architecture of it, consist merely in the combination of rings. The difference arises only in the progress of growth, and they increase in every region until we have as complicated an animal, superior to the worm, as the lobster is superior to the bee or wasp.

How was the discovery of these facts accomplished? First, by an observation singly of these things, one independently of the other; then by a comparison of all the successive stages of growth of one with the successive stages of growth of the other; then by comparison of all the features with one another; and then we reached the general conclusion, that there was but one plan of structure of the whole; but as soon as we have reached this generalization, we have at once also come to the

conviction, that between animals organized on this plan there can be no similarity to the animals organized on any other plan. We find that our frame is built in a very different way. If we begin to analyze the difference, then we see that what distinguishes man is his head and brain, his middle body and limbs. It would not be a difficult thing to show, that the same bones are found in quadrupeds as in man; and that their limbs and organization correspond. It only shows that the Great Architect knew how to apply the same means to purposes as different as walking and flying. Even in fish, the fins are only modified arms and legs, and are constructed on the same plan of arrangement, as may be distinctly traced by any person who would for a moment establish a comparison for himself, not merely by speaking these things, telling them in a school-room—but only where the bodies of the animals are at hand to show them. If you use a specimen in place of a text-book, you will exhibit the similarity which exists between animals constructed on this plan, and you will introduce the most secure foundation for generalization which you can secure. You will have shown that the backbone of the fish is the same as that which supports our frame; that the bones which form the ill-shaped and elongated head are the same which form our skull and brain, and that the fin which is attached is only an elongated arm. It is only in reference to special adaptation that the differences are introduced. I have entered into details, to show you that such objects exhibited and compared, will suggest ideas, and will lead to the training of the mind in a much more effective manner than by any study of mere text-books of general propositions and sentences. And yet I consider that of the utmost importance.

Let me not be understood, as if I thought that the study of writers was not of importance. It is only in developing all our faculties for making man what he may be, it is only in giving to his mind that noble development of his faculties, that we urge this subject. If we cultivate the imagination and the memory,—and thus cultivation of the senses is neglected,—the ability of observing is neglected, and all those abilities which man may acquire by the culture of his senses, by the art of observing, are left untrained. The great element of education is left out of our system—that which appeals to the senses; that which appeals to the power of observing; that which requires activity of manipulation; and while only the imaginative faculties and the memories are cultivated, the other faculties are left starving. In our age, while the study of natural history is so manifestly necessary to the work of men, add that means to the culture of our schools; and to do it as soon as possible, educate the teachers who will be capable of imparting information; and that can be done easily by following the wise method which has been adopted in every branch.

When physical geography was introduced into our schools, how was it done? One man went about from school to school, and gave instruction in that one branch, and his pupils are now teachers. Send us a few scholars who have aptitude for that study, in our principal schools in which we teach natural history; and in the teachers' institutes, and in the schools themselves, let them show what can be taught, and very soon the spirit will be caught and will spread; and in a few years we may have our system of education embodying that important branch of study, and I verily believe it to be one of the most important additions which can be made to our system of education.

FLOWERS AND THEIR TEACHINGS.—All the prophets were devout students of God's works, and warm admirers of the beauties scattered through them: as a proof of which, they have hung unfading garlands, which they gathered in their lonely walks, in various parts of that Temple of Truth, which they helped, as God's instruments, to rear and beautify. And He to whom they all bear witness, and point out as the "Plant of Renown," "the Righteous Branch," "the Rose of Sharon;" He who gave these flowers their lovely tints and moulded their faultless forms; He talked to man of the flowers, teaching him to "consider the lilies," and to learn from them to trust that Providence which overlooks nothing, to which nothing is impossible, and which is pledged to fulfill all the purposes and promises of God's excellent loving kindness. Flowers also are emblems of those graces of the Spirit which believers in Jesus derive from Him. The sunflower sets forth faith, and bids us to be ever looking unto Jesus. The violet is the well-known teacher of humility; it hides from view, yet sheds a sweet fragrance around. The snow-drop, battling with the wintry cold, is the symbol of hope. The honeysuckle, clinging to its strong prop, and filling the air with its odorous perfume, sets forth love; while the lily, in the softest tones, repeats the words of Him whom it represents, and says, "Trust implicitly your Heavenly Father's care."—*Sketches and Lessons from Daily Life.*

SUNLIGHT IN HOUSES.—It has been established by careful observation that where sunlight penetrates all the rooms of a dwelling the inmates are less liable to sickness than where the apartments are deprived of its health-invigorating influences. Basement rooms are the nurseries of indisposition. It is a gross mistake to compel human beings to reside partially under ground. There is a defective condition of the air in such rooms, connected with dampness, besides the decomposing paint on the walls and the escape of noxious gases from pipes and drains. All school-rooms, especially, should be open to the sunlight; yet, as a general thing, they are darkened like a parlor.

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

From the Massachusetts Teacher.

**Examination Questions.—High School,
Roxbury, 1861.**

ARITHMETIC.

1. Define the following terms: Number, Reduction, Measure, Multiple, Factors, and Prime-factors.
2. What are the prime-factors of 7684?
3. Find the greatest common measure of 9863, 437437, and 2018835?
4. Find the least common multiple of 1181, 2741, and 3413.
5. Divide 16-48 of 7-15 by 11-13 of 9-4 of 18-27, explain the operations of division and multiplication in the above.
6. Reduce $\frac{3-7 \text{ of } 5-3 \text{ of } 3-2 \text{ of } 14-5}{3-11 \text{ of } 22-4 \text{ of } 8-6 \text{ of } 1-2 \text{ of } 2}$ to its simplest form.
7. Reduce 4-225 acres to the fraction of a square yard.
8. Reduce 19-27 of a civil year (365 days) to days, etc.
9. Reduce 8s., 25¢, 30", 20'" to the fraction of a circumference.
10. Add $\frac{4 \ 3-5}{2 \ 1-3}$, $\frac{7 \ 1-3}{1-5}$, 4 1-7, and 1-3 of 27-2.
11. From $\frac{4 \ 1-5}{4 \ 2-7}$ take $\frac{5 \ 1-6}{9 \ 2-5}$.
12. How many times will a wheel that is 9 1-3 feet in circumference turn round in running 17 3-4 miles?
13. How much cloth, that is 3-5 of a yard wide, will it take to line a cloak containing 8 1-4 yards, which is 11 12 of a yard wide?
14. A piece of land is 63.5 rods long and 27.75 rods wide; what will it cost to wall it at 87 1-2 cents per rod?
15. B sold an ox which weighed 17 cwt. 3 qr. 8 lbs., and two cows that weighed 5 cwt. 3 qr. 18 lbs. each; three swine that weighed 3 cwt. 2 qr. 12 lbs., 4 cwt. 1 qr. 18 lbs., and 5 cwt. 3 qr. 6 lbs., respectively. How much more beef than pork did he sell?
16. What is the amount of 48.50 for 1 year, 8 months, 17 days, at 4 1-2 per cent. simple interest?

GRAMMAR.

1. Why is the r doubled in conferred?
2. Why is the l not doubled in tolling?
3. What is a sentence?
4. What is a proper noun?
5. What is an abstract noun?

6. Why are abstract nouns so called?
7. What is the regular mode of forming the plural?
8. How do nouns ending in y form the plural?
9. How do compound nouns form the plural?
10. Give exceptions.
11. How is the possessive case plural formed, when the nominative plural does not end in s?
12. What is parsing?
13. When do nouns become adjectives?
14. What is a passive verb, and how is one formed?
15. Parse the words in italics in the following lines:
*"With equal minds what happens let us bear,
 Nor joy nor grieve too much for things beyond our care."*
16. Analyze the preceding sentence.

HISTORY.

1. Define the following words: Tariff, Embargo, Nullification, Rebellion, Revolution.
2. To whom is the world indebted for the discovery of America?
3. Who first sailed to India round the Cape of Good Hope?
4. When, and with what force did Cortez invade Mexico?
5. By what right did Europeans take possession of the parts of America which they visited?
6. How were the original inhabitants treated?
7. When did the Crown of England grant the Charter under which the first effectual English settlements were made in North America?
8. What two companies were constituted?
9. What territory was assigned to each?
10. What Act was passed by Parliament in 1767?
11. What was done to render the act effectual?
12. When, and where did the Revolutionary War commence?
13. What change was made in the theatre of the war in 1779?
14. What State was the principal theatre of the war in 1780?
15. What difficulties arose when the American army was about to be disbanded?
16. How had the army been paid, and what was its condition?
17. What was the great measure of the first term of Mr. Jefferson's administration.
18. What did the French Berlin Decree declare?
19. In what wars did Gen. Jackson acquire a high military reputation?

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Name the circles which bound the zones.
2. On what does the temperature of a place depend?
3. Name and locate the capitals of the Middle States.

4. What are the principal productions of the Southern States?

5. How do the waters of Lake Champlain reach the Ocean?

6. Sketch a map showing the relative situation of the zones, equator, tropics, polar circles, and poles, and mark the latitude of each.

7. What is a republic? What is a degree?

8. Name and locate the first five cities of the United States in the order of their population: the first four in Europe.

9. Name the principal exports of Russia.

10. Through what waters would a vessel pass in sailing from Chicago to St. Petersburg?

11. What is the latitude of Boston? The longitude?

12. Bound Kentucky.

13. What causes day and night, the tides, the winds, the seasons?

14. Sketch a map of Roxbury.

15. What isthmus unites Africa and Asia?

16. Sketch maps of the following rivers, designating their latitude and longitude: Mississippi and its principal branches, and the Danube.

suggestions as to their future needs, &c., claim the attention of the reader. The able Superintendent closes thus:

As the sculptor takes the block of marble from the quarry, prepares and fashions it according to the idea for which it is designed, carefully elaborating that idea during the whole process of development as it passes through various hands, until it receives the finishing touch, and is ready for the niche prepared to receive it; so should we go down to the lowest stratum of human society, search out the neglected and forgotten, clear away the rubbish by which they are surrounded, bring them out into the light, place them in the hands of the artist, and cause them to pass through the various processes necessary to the symmetrical development of the body, the training of the intellect, and the culture of the heart; and all so perfectly that the image of the Creator shall be seen, and all have occasion to acknowledge that thus educated, "MAN is the noblest work of God!"

Fountains of light, knowledge and influence which produce such a glorious result, should be encouraged and liberally supported. This is our duty, privilege and wisdom. Such a policy is like that wisdom whose "merchandise is better than the merchandise of silver, and the gain thereof than fine gold."

Never in the history of our country have we so much needed this kind of education for the masses, as at present; never has there been such a demand upon our young men, as to-day. If we neglect our duty, the flood-gates of evil will open upon us, and civil discord, ambition, havoc, bloodshed and ruin will be our portion; and our Republic will, ere long, be numbered among those that were. But when I remember the early history of our country; that it was settled by the great, the wise, and the good; that they were the Fathers of liberty and free institutions; that they inaugurated "a government, the wisest and best upon which the sun has ever shone"; that in securing these blessings, they poured out their blood, and sacrificed themselves upon the altar of their country; I do not, I cannot believe that an end so disastrous and inglorious as those of the ancient republics can possibly be ours.

If we are in sympathy with the idea of the Great Expounder of the Constitution, Daniel Webster, when he said, "Educate your children, and then the country is safe"; if we believe with that eminent patriot and statesman, DeWitt Clinton, that "The first duty of the State, and the surest evidence of good government, is the encouragement of education; that a general diffusion of knowledge is the precursor and protector of republican institutions; that in it we must confide as the conservative power that will watch over our liberties, and guard them against fraud, intrigue, corruption and violence; if we consider the system of our public schools as the palladium of our free-

Editors' Department.

Contributions.

THE following contributions have been received in compliance with a resolution passed at a recent meeting of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, held at Carolina Mills, for the relief of the sick and wounded soldiers:

Previously acknowledged.....	\$87 81
Elveton Arnold, Dist. No. 13, North Kingstown	21
Susan B. Wescott, Primary School, River Point.....	1 00
James M. Collins, District No. 12, White Rock Village, Westerly.....	72
F. H. Davis, District No. 14, Dorrville, Westerly.....	56
Miss Clarissa Cargill, Dist. No. 13, Cumberland.....	1 40
T. W. Bicknell, High School, Bristol.....	60

\$92 30

WE received, some time since, the Seventh Annual Report of the City Superintendent of Schools of Brooklyn, New York, for the year ending January 31, 1862.

There is a spiciness and brevity in this report which is refreshing. No vague generalities consume the space without striking any where in particular; no broadcast censures which really reach no person's conscience; no hifalutin, bogus periods, so indicative of zeal without knowledge; but a close review of the schools, pointed and plain

dom, the bulwark of a republican government, and that the right of suffrage cannot be exercised in a salutary manner without intelligence and virtue"; then, in every section of the city, let the commodious school house be erected, and stand out as an exponent of our views in relation to the first and one of the most important provisions; and let the necessary means be supplied in order to a thorough and complete course of instruction of our sons and daughters. Educated under such influences, they will regard you, gentlemen, as their benefactors, and of the city which you represent; with one heart and voice they will exclaim, *Esto Perpetua!*

AGASSIZ AND OKEN DINING ON POTATOES.—An interesting fact, not without its moral, is told by Agassiz, of his visit, when a young man, to the great German naturalist, Professor Lorenz Oken. The Professor received his guest with warm enthusiasm, but apparent embarrassment. He showed his visitor the laboratory, and the students at work; also his cabinet; and, lastly, his splendid library of books pertaining to zoological science, a collection worth some seven thousand dollars, and well worthy the glow of pride which the owner manifested as he expatiated on its excellence. The dreaded dinner-hour came and now the embarrassment of the great German reached its maximum point. "M. Agassiz," said he, with evident perturbation, "to gather and keep up this library exacts the utmost husbandry of any pecuniary means. To accomplish this, I allow myself no luxury whatever. Hence my table is restricted to the plainest fare. Thrice a week our dinner boasts of meat; the other days we have only potatoes and salt. I very much regret that your visit has occurred on a potato day." And so the splendid Switzer, and the great German with his students, dined together on potatoes and salt.—*Mass. Teacher.*

THE Annual Meeting of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association will be held at Worcester on Monday and Tuesday, the 18th and 19th of August. Prof. Seylee, of Amherst, S. W. Mason, of Boston, and James K. Lombard, of Worcester, have engaged to lecture. A full programme of the meeting will soon be published.—*Massachusetts Teacher.*

We have received the Catalogue of the Officers and Students of Providence Conference Seminary and Musical Institute, East Greenwich, Rhode Island, for the year ending July, 1862. For admission, catalogue, circulars or information, address Rev. Bernice D. Ames, A. M., East Greenwich, R. I.

THE Thirty Third Annual Meeting of the American Institute of Instruction will be held at the *State House in Hartford*, commencing on the 20th of August.

Educational Intelligence.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to the PUBLISHERS OF THE SCHOOLMASTER Providence.

From the Providence Evening Press.
The Public Schools of Providence.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S QUARTERLY REPORT.

PROVIDENCE, July 25th, 1862.

To the School Committee of the City of Providence:

Gentlemen:—It again becomes my duty to make a report to you of the character and condition of our schools. And it is with confidence and pleasure that I am able to state that they continue to improve and to advance towards a very high standard of excellence. In many of the branches taught, they are unsurpassed by any schools of the same grade that I have ever seen. With but few exceptions, the teachers have been faithful and laborious, and the results show that they have been conscientiously diligent in their arduous work. There have been, also, evidences of tact and skill, not only in imparting instruction, but in arousing and quickening the youthful mind. A large number of teachers—much larger than usual—have been compelled by impaired health to leave their schools before the close of the term. This has been in consequence of their severe and incessant labors. There is no work, either of body or mind, or both conjoined, so exhausting to the mental energies, and that will so soon prostrate the most robust, as the unremitted, distracting toil of the school-room. None but those who have had long experience can fully appreciate how necessary it is to the health of teachers that they have frequent intervals of rest and repose.

Among the few defects that I have noticed in our schools the past term is a want of proper sympathy on the part of teachers for the pupils under their care. There are a few who do not seem to have become sufficiently acquainted with the individual characters and peculiarities of taste and disposition of those whom they are to teach and control. They do not take into consideration the influences for good or evil that surround them when out of school. In very many cases pupils are discouraged and disheartened by severe reproof or sharp rebuke, when kind words and a little judicious sympathy would stimulate to a greater diligence, and secure prompt and cheerful obedience. There is no lack of literary qualifications in any of our teachers; but often a little more heart and soul that can sympathize and feel for the unfortunate, the disobedient, and even the willfully obstinate, would add greatly to the efficiency and value of their teaching. There is a kind of philosophy to be learned in the school-room which is worth infinitely more than all the abstractions and subtle disquisitions of antiquity—and that is, how to quicken and to control the youthful mind—to guard and protect it

against evil, and to give it power and energy in the pursuit of what is good. Unfortunately this wisdom is seldom learned, and even then but imperfectly, till after years of toil and experience, when the opportunities to use it to the greatest advantage have passed away.

There is another evil that often disturbs the successful working and harmony of our schools. I refer to the frequent instances of the unreasonableness of parents, and their want of active coöperation with teachers. Some seem disposed to prejudge every case of difficulty, and to form their opinion upon a partial knowledge of the facts; and as a matter of course, to condemn the teacher. By such unwise partiality and interference, the discipline of our best schools is seriously interrupted. If parents did not expect greater perfection in teachers—more self-control, or more wisdom in the management of children than they exhibit themselves, these difficulties would seldom occur. Absolute perfection is not to be expected in any one, certainly not in teachers. Errors in judgment, mistakes in regard to duty, in discretion in language, and the indulgence of excited passion, are among the many frailties which are inseparable from human nature even under the highest Christian culture. We should judge others by the same standard by which we wished to be judged ourselves, especially those who are placed in the most trying and responsible situation of life.

Our schools have suffered more than usual the past term from the large number of idle, vagrant boys, who are in the habit of lounging about our school-houses, annoying the scholars and enticing away all over whom they have any influence. There seems to be at present but little prospect that this increasing evil will soon be remedied. There are so many plausible objections that can be urged against interfering with the rights of parents to control their children as they please, or to leave them without any control, that no feasible plan has yet been matured by which one of the greatest obstacles to the complete success of our schools may be removed.

The attendance the past term has been remarkably good, notwithstanding the interruptions of business and the distractions incident to the civil strife that is raging in our unhappy country. The whole number admitted is 7888. Of this number, 360 have been received into the High School, 2142 into the grammar, 1811 into the intermediate, and 3875 into the primary schools.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

DANIEL LEACH.

LIST OF TEACHERS.

HIGH SCHOOL.

Senior Class of Boys, Classical Department—John J. Ladd, Teacher.

Senior Class of Boys, English Department—Wm. A. Mowry, Teacher.

Junior Class of Boys—Samuel Thurber, Teacher.

Senior Class of Girls—Susannah E. Jackson, Teacher.

Middle Class of Girls—Eliza W. Houghton, Teacher.

Junior Class of Girls, First Division—Sarah E. Doyle, Teacher.

Junior Class of Girls, Second Division—Mary E. Reynolds, Teacher.

Junior Class of Girls, Third Division—Elizabeth Davis, Teacher.

FIRST DISTRICT.

Benefit street Grammar School—Noble W. DeMunn, Principal; Martha F. Thurber, Elizabeth B. Symonds, Lucy G. Metcalf, Abby A. F. Sprague, Eliza Thurber, Eliza J. Yeomans, Assistants.

Benefit street Intermediate School—Mary E. Anthony, Principal.

Benefit street Primary School—Elizabeth Davis, Principal; Susan Joelin, Assistant.

State street Intermediate School—Abby C. Salisbury, Principal; Eleanor S. Calder, Assistant.

State street Primary School—Elizabeth J. Chase, Principal; Abby A. Evans, Maria T. Hale, Mary D. Armington, Assistants.

Scott street Intermediate School—Ann E. Avery, Principal; Elizabeth Passmore, Assistant.

Scott street Primary School—Ann Yerrington, Principal; Sarah E. Capron, Assistant.

Graham street Intermediate School—Harriet J. Helme, Principal; M. Francis Congdon, Assistant.

Graham street Primary School—Harriet C. Randall, Principal; Maria L. Taft, Assistant.

Walling street Intermediate School—Elizabeth B. Carpenter, Principal; Anna E. Searle, Assistant.

Walling street Primary School—Elizabeth Helme, Principal; Mary Potter, Assistant.

SECOND DISTRICT.

Prospect street Grammar School—Albert J. Manchester, Principal; Cornelia W. Latham, Martha J. Guild, Emma Brown, Candace G. Wilcox, Assistants.

Meeting street Grammar School—A. C. Robbins, Principal; Caroline Ashley, Assistant.

Prospect street Intermediate School—Amelia Angell, Principal; Harriet L. Bucklin, Assistant.

Prospect street Primary School—Mary C. Peck, Principal; Julianna Armington, Assistant.

Meeting street Primary School—Elizabeth H. Smith, Principal.

THIRD DISTRICT.

Arnold street Grammar School—Alvah W. Godding, Principal; Amanda Miles, Fanny Stebbins, Frances Gruber, Charlotte R. Hoswell, Elizabeth S. Parker, Assistants.

Arnold street Intermediate School—Susan R. Parker, Principal.

Arnold street Primary School—Emma Shaw, Principal; Catharine M. Gladding, Assistant.

East street Intermediate School—Mary W. Armington, Principal; Delia Armington, Assistant.

East street Primary School—Almy E. Spalding, Principal; Hannah Bailey, Mary C. Bradford, Elizabeth Goff, Assistants.

Transit street Intermediate School—Sarah Shaw, Principal; Charlotte M. Hodges, Assistant.

Transit street Primary School—Lydia M. Carpenter, Principal; Sarah A. Purkis, Assistant.

Transit street Primary School, No. 2—Rebecca Armington, Principal; Juliette Allen, Assistant.

FOURTH DISTRICT.

Fountain street Grammar School—Albert A. Gamwell, Principal; Rebecca E. Chase, Eliza Pierce, Helen A. Nichols, Elizabeth C. Capron, M. S. D. Gower, Margaret W. Arnold, Assistants.

Fountain street Intermediate School—Anna M. Sessions, Principal; Mary J. Cleveland, Assistant.

Fountain street Primary School—Helen C. Elliott, Principal; Martha W. Hall, Assistant.

Carpenter street Intermediate School—Rebecca O. Sheldon, Principal; Mary M. Angell, Assistant.

Carpenter street Primary School—Eliza B. Barnes, Principal; Susan S. Williams, Assistant.

Federal street Intermediate School—Emily E. Potter, Principal; Mary A. H. McQueen, Assistant.

Federal street Primary School—Abby T. Tenner, Principal; Susan Gorton, Ellen M. Arnold, Assistants.

Potter's Avenue Intermediate School—M. Austania Babcock, Principal; Emeline A. Sayles, Assistant.
Potter's Avenue Primary School—Maria Essex, Principal; Julia Waterman, Assistant.
Pond street Primary School—Abby A. Branch, Principal; Mary E. Young, Assistant.

FIFTH DISTRICT.

Elm street Grammar School—Thomas Davis, Principal; Mary C. Lewis, Isabella F. Doyle, Ann M. Barrows, Celia J. Lewis, Asenath Tellow, Mary Col., Assistants.

Hospital street Intermediate School—Diana S. Parkhurst, Principal; Angeline Haskell, Assistant.

Hospital street Primary School—Alice Brogden, Principal; Abby F. Butler, Assistant.

Richmond street Intermediate School—Eliza M. Ingraham, Principal; Abby F. Sherburne, Assistant.

Richmond street Primary School—Almira Marshall, Principal; Emily T. Winsor, Kate Scott, Sarah E. Tanner, Assistants.

Plane street Intermediate School—Rosamond R. Leavens, Principal; Martha R. Congdon, Assistant.

Plane street Primary School—Ann E. Edmonds, Principal; Rebecca Sessions, Assistant.

SIXTH DISTRICT.

Bridgham Grammar School—Francis B. Snow, Principal; Ellen M. Haskell, Mary E. Scarborough, Julia A. Osgood, Sarah C. Allen, R. Anne Haskell, Emeline B. Nichols, Maria F. Stokes, Sarah Dean, Lizzie Wilcox, Sarah C. Padelford, Assistants.

Summer street Intermediate School—A. F. Fielding, Principal; Susan M. Shelly, Harriet R. Greene, Susie Gladding, Assistants.

Summer street Primary School—Abby Jackson, Principal; Elizabeth Cory, Julia E. Cady, Sarah Austin, Assistants.

Hammond street Intermediate School—Mary T. Irons, Principal; Kate Jackson, Assistant.

Hammond street Primary School—Frances A. Remington, Principal; Caroline F. Andrews, Mary R. Wicke, Lucy Cole, Assistants.

Friendship street Intermediate School—Sarah T. Wilbur, Principal; Annie T. Whitney, Assistant.

Friendship street Primary School—Margaret E. Palmgreene, Principal; Sarah M. Farmer, Assistant.

Ring street Intermediate School—Mary E. Logee, Principal; Ann M. Angell, Assistant.

Ring street Primary School—Mary M. Shelley, Principal; Abby F. Hendrick, Assistant.

Teacher of French—Alphonse Renaud.

Teachers of Vocal Music—Seth Sumner, Charlotte O. Doyle.

Teacher of Drawing—Lydia M. Underwood.

MR. JOHN SWETT, a San Francisco teacher, who is still proud to be reckoned as a Yankee schoolmaster, has been nominated for Superintendent of Public Instruction in California by the Union Administration Convention. Pending the nomination, he addressed the Convention as follows:

Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Convention:—In making my appearance before you to-day, I rise for the first time in my life to speak to a political Convention, and appear for the first time in my life as a candidate for any office in the gift of the people. I am proud that at this time I seek an office so intimately connected with my profession, to which ten years of the past portion of my life have been devoted—in arduous hard labor in the public school-room. Gentlemen, I am indebted for the commencement of my education to a little school-house in the old Granite State; and whatever I am, I owe it to that school system of New England. I am proud of it. It was my misfortune that, after fitting for col-

lege, circumstances prevented me from entering; but I have endeavored all my life to make up for this deficiency by patient, hard and persevering study, and I claim that though I have no liberal education, I am not an uneducated man. Like many others, I am to a certain degree self-educated. It was my misfortune that I had not the advantages of a liberal education; but I thank God that I had the advantages of a public school education. In defining my position, I am a Union man. I always have been. I should be recreant to my race if I were not, for my grandfather was a good Union man, who shouldered his musket in defence of the Constitution and Government under George Washington. His bones would rise up before me if every fibre in my body were not Union. So far for my position. Now, gentlemen, it has been spoken of in this Convention as though this nomination of State Superintendent were a trifling matter. Gentlemen have said, "nominate your Superintendent and let the schoolmasters go home." Gentlemen, you need them there. You never will have a Union State to the back-bone until you have a school system so thorough that every portion shall be brought into the schools, and thoroughly Americanized. Gentlemen, you are taking an important measure towards making this a Union State for any crisis that may arise in the future. It is not an unimportant matter. Cast your eye over the map to-day, and show me a section from which people shed their blood most freely for the defence of the Union, and I will show you those that have expended the most money for public schools and for the best school system. You show me the States that are stained blackest with the damning stain of disunion, and I will show you those that have no public school system, that ignored, did not want, and that will not have it. Why, gentlemen, on the 19th of April, 1776, the men at Lexington, who poured out their life-blood, were graduates of the American public schools; and the men of a later day, who shed the first blood of this war on the 19th of April, 1861, answered to the tap of the drum in the schools, from the school-houses of Massachusetts. Look at the State of New York, the Banner State in patriotism, perhaps—in numbers, at least—in this war. She has a public-school system second to none in the Union. Ohio, also, is one of the Banner States in education. And, gentlemen, why is it that these armies are so invincible when gathered in the field, but for the fact that behind the bayonets is the intelligence of the public schools, playing around those loyal points like lightning, making those bayonets as invincible as the sword of the Archangel Michael. [Applause.] I say, gentlemen, if you want in future a State so thoroughly Union that no rebellion can arise, that no Convention like this need ever be called to put down secession and treason, organize thoroughly an effective system of public schools. [Cheers.] Now, I believe fully in what has been stated in this Convention, and that the duties of the next Superintendent of Public Instruction will be in travelling through this State—which has never been done. The public must be awakened, and the teachers must be encouraged. I claim to represent, in some degree, the teachers of this State. If you give me this nomination, I shall take it as a compliment, not to me personally, but to the working teachers who perform regular duties in the school-room. [Applause.] If you confer upon me this nomination, I do not consider that you will give me any additional honor. I believe that the place which I occupy now is as honorable as that of Superintendent of Public Instruction. If you give me the nomination I shall thank you for it; and if not, I shall go back without a shadow of regret to my duties in the school-room—where I may do something toward Americanizing the people of this State, who are to take your places, and inspiring them with a love of liberty and a sacred regard for the rights of man.

AUGUST, 1892.

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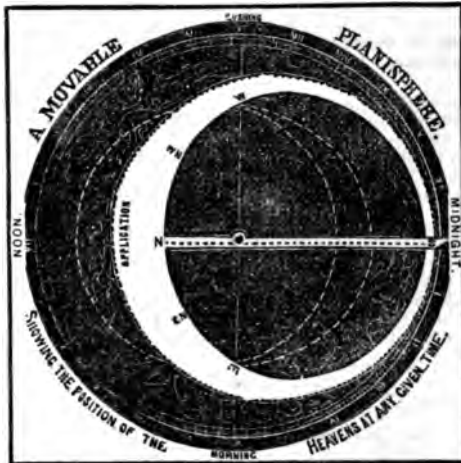
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PROVIDENCE March, 1861.

The R. I. Schoolmaster.

SEPTEMBER, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

NUMBER NINE.

For the Schoolmaster.
The Younger Days of Gibbon.

IN the essay on Petrarch, Macaulay declares that Homer was the most modest of men. In over thirty thousand lines which he wrote, critics have never been able to detect a single "hint as to his situation and feelings." That posterity should experience no such difficulty in his case, Gibbon, with an effrontery not very complimentary to his great mind, has left on record a profuse volume of memoirs, which is unsurpassed as a monument of literary egotism and vivacious vanity. This inimitable performance opens with a chapter of the Generations of the House of Gibbon as interminable as "the book of the generations of Adam." With unsparring diligence, Mr. Gibbon lays bare the lines of ancestry. He dissects the Herald's Books with the gusto of a surgeon, and wipes the dust of centuries from antique coach-pannels, and exhumes a generation of giants from the Shropshire vaults. With a quaint conceit he proclaims the family programme as hoarse-voiced auctioneers proclaim their wares. One Gibbon was blown into bankruptcy by the South Sea bubble. One sat in ermine on the customs-bench of Queen Ann, in that age when Bolingbroke split his sides at the obscene jokes of Prior, and another, in a still earlier age, turned away sick and faint at heart as Sir James Fien swung from the insurgent gibbet of Jack Cade. This family panorama unrolls in curious alcoves and retreats. One Gibbon reared "the strong and stately castle of Queensborough," at Medway, "by the sea." One was a London counter-jumper, and measured out German linens in Leadenhall street. One was a bitter misanthrope, and

painted ogresses on his escutcheon. One suffered martyrdom, yet his descendant at the eighth remove was content to work the treadles of a cloth machine. One lost his head by a change in the administration, another was in imminent danger of being scalped at an Indian dance on the Susquehanna, and the sole relic of another is picked out, after the oblivion of a century, from under a dirt-heap in an obscure corner of the Ducal library of Wolfenbittel. Such a feast of genealogy would have satiated an ordinary autobiographist. But Gibbon was a literary as well as a physical gormandizer. He not only relates who his ancestors were, but stalks through every county in England to discover whom his ancestors knew. The result was a meagre reward for his pains. A certain John Gibbon sat at an Astrologer's club with William Dugdale and Mr. Ashmole,—forgotten names written only on the disfigured front of some rural gravestone, or remembered only by the solemn sexton of some rural church. Hester Gibbon devoted a career of celibacy to a platonic and confessional connection with a Mr. William Law,—a man whose single claim to the memory of this late posterity is the ludicrous virulence with which he anathematized "all actors" and the intemperate satire by which he sought to call sinners to repentance. The immediate marriage from which the historian sprang was happy in the extreme. His mother was the flower of high London life. But the embroidered veil which fell around her snowy shoulders was not more frail than the beauty it enveloped, frittered away in the unceasing round of flirtation and fashion. His father was a model of English courtesy and honor. His conviviality rarely ran to excess.

His hospitality never merged in extravagance. In politics he enjoyed the honors of that party whose reverses he accepted without a murmur. Gibbon insinuates that he was a perfect gentleman,—that is, he kept his temper, worshipped his king, never cursed at table, loved his wife, and knew the points of honor better than the creed of the church.

Of such stock was the historian born. Of seven children he alone survived. And so frail was the tenure by which he held on to life that his father sat uneasily in his chair at the Aldermen's Rooms, expecting each moment to be called to the bedside of his dying heir. At the sprinkling of each child he had repeated the patronymic "Edward," in order, as Gibbon so felicitously quotes, "*uno avulso non deficit alter*." In the miracle of the historian's life, human as well as divine agency was manifest. To Miss Catharine Porten, at once an aunt and parent, Gibbon acknowledges himself vastly indebted. Heaven seems specially to have consecrated her, like the Roman Vestal, to fan the flame. There came a time when her protégé, inflated with vanity, puffed with applause, apathetic in the midst of splendid successes, indifferent to religion or love, was roused to unusual emotion at the mention of this old nurse's name, and tearing off his mask of sullen stoicism, shed bitter tears. She seems to have been a quiet Christian, one of those beings of whom society is full,—deprived of children of their own, designed to be mothers to the children of their frail sisters to whom the ballroom presents higher considerations than the nursery—half-developed women, under a frivolous ban and a contemptible prejudice—wall-flowers at dinner parties—yet wearing under their demureness and serenity a repressed gaiety and an infinite fund of affection. Such was Miss Porten. Her outward attire was the symbol of her mind. She preserved the high waisted, heavily-frilled dress, the broad, stiff collar and huge shell comb, which younger women had discarded a century before. She drew her small, narrow sleeves down to her slender blue-veined hand, in utter abhorrence of the profuse display and prodigal charms of Sir Peter Lely's beauties. Beside the dashing, spirited mother of the historian she fades into littleness, but in a style of quiet womanhood, a cheerful temper never ruffled, a faith in God never disturbed, she rises far above the fashionable Mrs. Gibbon. Very much did she love young Gibbon, in her serene way. Her assiduity supplied every care

to the puny invalid. In calmness she endured his feverish petulance, and exhausted every resource that a woman's tact could invent or a woman's sympathy suggest to assuage the sharpness of pain. Such devotion Gibbon tenderly repaid by employing to portray her excellence the same pencil with which he drew the splendid pictures of Alexander and Severus.

Thus Gibbon struggled up to his ninth year. Now creeping about his sick chamber, at the quiet homestead in Putney Village, alternately tortured and relieved, an experiment for the skill or ignorance of every practitioner, from Sloane and Ward to the Chevalier Taylor. Now winning applause at his father's state dinners, by a precocious aptitude at figures. Now learning his Latin rudiments from an obscure grammar, and the elements of Algebra from a fanciful novel. At this age he was under the tutorship of Mr. John Kirby. This man introduces us to the English teacher, of whom he was a perfect type. A wretched curate, whom the world had driven to the wall, whom misfortune had rendered timid and poverty made servile. In the epic of these men's lives is woven many a line of sadness. In the mould of unceasing labors poorly paid, of cares meanly recompensed, of vexations and insults borne in meekness and with patience, their lot was cast. Lords and advocates of slender talents built superficial reputations upon the brains of amanuenses and tutors who were fed on scraps and cursed as house-dogs. The English scholars of Gibbon's day! They were starved at overloaded tables, and men who could speak five languages were crowded in garrets with lacqueys and footmen who could not even speak one with correctness or fluency. Scholars worthy to converse with Bacon toiled a twelve-month for less than Bacon squandered on a dinner. The author of the Letter to the October Club quarreled and flirted in the kitchen of Sir William Temple, and now their genius flashes in many an old book whose title-page does not bear their name. Such was Gibbon's first tutor, John Kirby. Under such a master he made hardly any progress. One Sabbath he unluckily forgot the name of King George in his prayers. The indiscreet blunder lost him his head, and when and where he ended a most unfortunate and weary life even the astounding diligence of Gibbon was never able to discover. From the crude and gloomy tutorship of Mr. John Kirby the historian entered upon public-school life at Kington upon the Thames. Although with a

surplus exactness he describes his experience there, it appears to have been not unusual. It was the experience of a sad, shy, nervous youngster with a crook in his moral spine, weak muscles and an overgrown head. Laboring under perpetual debility from his birth he had been pampered and indulged to that degree that the familiar rudeness of play-fellows shocked him inexpressibly, and the austerity of a pedagogue dissolved him in tears. He had no commanding trait of character to guarantee respect. He was ridiculed for his physical infirmity, and reproached with the politics of his family. So utterly lonely was he, that years afterwards he remembered the very spot where he caught the farewell benediction of his mother's kiss, and tried, as he passed, to detect in the dust of the highway the prints of the horses' hoofs and the rim of the carriage wheels. At no time of life, in no conditions, will such an awful sense of loneliness and desertion steal upon the soul as when a child stands for the first time alone upon the threshold of a school-room and sees the grim majesty of the master and hears the hum of lips like the whirl of numberless wheels. And there are men who, without concern, have fought iniquity and sin in courts and pulpits; who, without a tremor, have looked into the ghastly eyes of death in the lazar-houses of great cities; who, undismayed, have faced the pitiless storm of grape and cannister or led the forlorn hope, can look back to the moment when they stood alone for the first time before the master's desk, and remember how the first glance into the master's eyes inspired them with a more utter sense of nothingness, of cowardice and of shame, than unbroken testimony, hydra-headed vices or sharp lines of bayonets ever have been able to produce. Such, however, was Gibbon's experience. Beyond this nothing peculiar occurred to him. He worked through the lower classics, Phadrus and Nepos, as all school-boys, before and since. In 1747 his mother's death recalled him from a school to which he never returned. There are the touches of a master's hand in the picture of himself which he has painted:—A pale, shy boy, deprived by death of his mother, by political cares of his father; morbid from a prostrating sickness; wandering about a silent, deserted mansion house, near Putney's bridge; holding the hand of a taciturn nurse listening to the gloomy lapping of the Thames; opening the long-shut doors of a dusty library; sitting down, at twilight, to discuss the mysteries of a religion he

could never accept:—there are few finer pictures in the gallery of literature.

Gibbon next attended Westminster school. Laboriously, fighting disease and diffidence, he reached the third form. As a public-school scholar he never went higher. The next two years of his life (1750—1752) are confused and mixed. There are glimpses of him throwing pebbles into the waves of Bath, as if to resurrect the buried secrets of Health; poring over Horace in the close foliage of a parsonage. Beyond this nothing, only a quiet, shy, dreamy, peevish boy, revolving the first principles of society and speculating on questions that have dismayed older minds.

At length in a triumphal hour nature overcame the obstinacy of disease, and Gibbon passed under the noble gateway and entered the spacious cloisters of Magdalen College. In the inimitable language of the "Memoirs," he came to Oxford "with a stock of erudition that might have puzzled a doctor and a degree of ignorance of which a school-boy might have been ashamed." At his matriculation he was a model for the oldest readers in his university. Most men never begin to read till eighteen. At fifteen Gibbon had mastered books to which most men are strangers at fifty. He read constantly, uninterruptedly,—when well to stifle the memory of past suffering, when sick to alleviate the pangs of present agony. He read everywhere, at Buriton, at Putney, at Bath, at Westminster. He read everything, the translations of Dryden, the originals of Homer, Xenophon, Procopius, Hearne, Rapin, Machiavel and Davila. The dinner bell dragged him reluctantly from Ecard's History, and he rushed from the table abruptly to guess at the French of D'Herbelot. Such was Gibbon when he came to Oxford. It would have been better for his fame and better for his soul if he had never seen Oxford. Of the arguments which Gibbon subsequently made use to defame the University the American student cannot form the remotest opinion. At any rate it seems that Oxford was anything but an amiable mistress, and Gibbon cordially reciprocated her indifference. He was frivolous among scenes where Hooker had pondered the laws of God and man. He was sullen in places that yet remembered Chillingworth, and contemptuous on the very spot where the great Locke himself had meditated on the bigotry of learned mind. It was hardly his fault. The imaginative boy had dreamed of a splendid college career, of laurels to be won. A week's experi-

ence shattered the vision. He was fresh from his Putney library thirsting for books. He found associates to whom books were a drug. He had hoped to listen in breathless admiration to the brilliant conversations of the illustrious living about the illustrious dead, and he listened to boisterous controversies about Tipton Slasher and the Spider. He had expected to hear dignified doctors discuss the politics of Aristotle. He saw only clamorous commoners grow furious over an Oxford shire election. He expected to sit in the great hall hung with green and listen to senior fellows declaiming in the noble Latin tongue. In reality he heard only toasts that shocked his loyalty, and obscene stories that jarred upon his ear. He had fondly dreamed in the old Putney days, of venerable men who would gently lead the novice by the hand, as the first great martyr had done at the Academy. Alas! he saw professors yawn and gape in coffee-rooms like surfeited boors, and divines and doctors sleep over a sermon or leer during a prayer. To such scenes Gibbon rapidly adapted himself. With the nonchalance of an expert he violated rules and committed excesses in the face and eyes of professors too stupid or indifferent to behold. He was swept into the feverish round of fast London life, and the doctors, bolstered up with fat salaries and stagnant with indolence, heeded not the flush prodigal who was wasting a double allowance on a flirtation at Bath. But all this came to a sudden end, and Gibbon turned from the dissipation of London to the contemplation of religion. Dr. Middleton published his "Free Inquiry." And it stung Gibbon like an arrow. Gibbon had never enjoyed religious culture. It is true he had disputed with Miss Porten the vague mysteries of her church. But the simple-minded woman knew no arguments and always fell sublimely back upon her unquestioning faith. She believed the miracles, the mediation and the judgment. But she knew not why and she did not care to know. Sufficient to her was it, that in her lowly life she had experienced the tenderness, the chastening and the joy. Beyond the lids of her Bible was a rayless blank. Within its lids was a splendid light that shone from the very gateways of the Celestial City. Directly her opposite was Gibbon. From the realm of faith he was an exile, wandering up and down like the restless lover of Evangeline. She was all belief, he was all unbelief. She trusted. He doubted. She felt a divine presence with her as she dreamily lingered over the *Sermon on the Mount*. He derided the passage

of the Israelites, and scoffed at the vision of Moses. He sailed the shoreless sea of suspicion a purposeless skeptic. Oxford, with her distinguished theology, did nothing to purify his morals. In such a state chance threw in his way Middleton's *Free Inquiry*. He followed it up with Bossuet's *Exposition and Protestant Variations*. He became a confirmed Roman Catholic. He ascribes the victory of conversion to Bousset, although in later years he had candor enough to confess that he was chiefly swayed by the arguments of Parsons. But to whomsoever of her priests the conversion is due, the Roman Church can boast that the great master of Roman history once sat as a humble devotee at her feet. Once converted, Gibbon did nothing by halves. He had been a lavish sybarite. He became a moral bundle of sack-cloth and ashes. He was devout like the apostles. He emulated the austerity of Dunstan and the zeal of Loyola. He crossed his breast before the Virgin. He invested the fictitious relics of martyrs with the splendors of an imagination already feverish with the passion of religion. His conversion he published to the world. Baker, the Jesuit Chaplain of the Sardinian Embassy, gently led the neophyte into the inner mysteries of communion. This is only one of a million instances of the utterly fearless devotion of the much scandalized order of Jesuits. According to Blackstone, to incline an Englishman to the Papal See was unmitigated treason. But the indomitable priest, in a strange land, in the face of almost certain annihilation, braved the severity of the English law and the chance of death at the merciless hand of an English mob, that he might add one more disciple to that unending throng whose matin prayers kept march with the sun round the globe. In a letter to his father, Gibbon proclaimed his conversion with much the same spirit which tempted the martyrs to sing hosannas in the Smithfield flames. He announced himself as a martyr to that church which he knew was older than Oxford or Westminster, and which he believed would exist when Oxford and Westminster were no more. He was a proselyte who conceited that on earth or in history no man had made such sacrifice of interest or such surrender of affection. And Oxford did everything to increase his sense of self-immolation. She turned upon the converted Commoner with the old fury with which she had persecuted Chillingworth and Boyle. Magdalen College could be indulgent to young rakes who disliked Terrence and relinquished the Oxford

cap for the soft embrace of a London harlot. But she never would be indulgent to men who honestly repudiated the doctrine of miraculous gifts. She could be indulgent to men who loved Fielding better than Plato and the Ascot Turf better than cloisters and hall. But she forswore all charity for the unlucky devotee who worshipped relics and bought masses for the dead. The indolent, the reckless, the frivolous Gibbon might receive her smile. But Gibbon the apostate, the neophyte, should never break bread at her board. She summarily dismissed him. A collegiate Letter du Cachet sent him home from college forever. Here endeth the romance of Gibbon's boyhood. The quiet logic of a Swiss Protestant clergyman afterwards weaned him from the Great Heresy. A man had better be a good Romanist than an infidel and a scoffer. Therefore it was worse with Gibbon, who, ceasing to believe in one system of religion, jeered at them all. M. Pavilliard might win him from the Church of Rome, but he was unable to enfold him in the arms of her great rival. Here endeth the romance of Gibbon's younger days. Such contrasts, such lights and shadows were the extremes of human experiences. The deep gloom of his home, the rush and gaiety of Oxford, the gentleness of Miss Porten, the roughness of Kingston School, the deep charity and open-heartedness of Dr. Francis, the hateful intolerance of the Magdalen doctors. Gibbon's life justifies the trite maxim, "the boy is father to the man." Outwardly he altered very much.

Whoever examines the profuse dress, the insolent bearing, the sensual features, which the memorable genius of Sir Joshua Reynolds has preserved for us, will be unable to discover the outlines of the weary-eyed, sad young man who entered Switzerland on the 30th of June, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred fifty-four. Inwardly, Gibbon was the same at fifteen as at forty, — studious, cynical, intensely selfish, high-handed, imperious. The deep lines which his teachers carved in his character only deepen with age. And the boy's experience is visible in the movements of the man. If he sneered at Christianity, we may well imagine it to be only a fling at Oxford, which he cordially hated till his dying day. If he wrote bitter sentences to Dr. Priestly and Dr. White, it was more to gratify a spite against the old Magdalen professors, than to vindicate a theory. England he never loved with the heartiness and loyalty of *Hampden* or *Pitt*. It is a question

not very difficult to determine, whether under different culture he might not have loved her better than either. As it was, he loved the land of Voltaire and the contracted territory of the Swiss. He was far happier talking infidelity at the table of D'Olbach than in listening to stupid debates in the House of Commons, or drilling the Kentish militia. He was French in every grain and seam of his mind. He had Voltaire's satire and Voltaire's skepticism. He had Pascal's memory and moroseness. And in every thing he did or said or wrote, or wherever he was, always and until the unexpected termination of his days, it is easy to trace the mystical influence of those old days of his boyhood, when he cried himself to sleep upon the benches at Kingston School.

G. M. D.

From the Vermont School Journal and Family Visitor.
Success.

Success, in any enterprise, is not the result of chance, neither is it the result of fortuitous circumstances; but depends wholly upon well-matured plans, careful adjustment of suitable means to compass the end proposed, together with patient, persevering effort.

The noble deeds which men do, the great names which they acquire, and their real success in everything which they undertake, always have great purposes for their antecedents. No man ever becomes great, — great as a statesman, orator, soldier or scholar — great in any department of human knowledge, who has not the ability of clearly conceiving, carefully investigating, wisely planning and adapting all the details which may have any bearing upon the object he proposes to accomplish; and above all, success in any enterprise which gives character and fame to a man, depends largely upon a determined will in the execution. That young man who sits waiting for the wheel of fortune to make *the revolution* which he fondly hopes *will make him*, is doomed to a sad disappointment. He never *will be made*, and he never *will make himself* until he clearly perceives the means necessary to be used and intelligently determines that he *will succeed*.

Failures in all undertakings, as might reasonably be expected, are consequent upon recklessly proceeding without well matured plans, definite purposes and a determined, energetic will. Multitudes of men who labor hard enough to insure success, wholly fail for the very reason that success is an impossible result to their *modus operandi*. Either their purposes are not

well defined, their means inadequate, their plans impracticable or they fail to push their efforts far enough to reach any legitimate conclusion in regard to the possibility of success. How many such men can be found in almost every community, whose whole lives are thus spent for naught, literally for naught, and yet they are among the busiest, most hurried and indefatigable in their efforts to succeed. Such men are not generally deficient in energy, but it is sadly misdirected or otherwise wasted. Zeal they have, but it is not according to knowledge.

We come to the conclusion, therefore, that no man can reasonably hope to succeed in any department of human effort, unless he proposes some definite purpose and has an intelligent understanding of the manner in which and the means by which he may arrive at the most desirable results. He must also possess an iron will which knows no defeat, but gallantly plunging into the thickest of the contest, bears onward the banner of success until complete victory crowns his effort. Thus Napoleon became a great general. The splendid train of victories which marked his wonderful career was consequent upon great purposes, a clear comprehension of facts and circumstances and a powerfully energetic will. Thus Demosthenes became the prince of orators. It is more than probable that the Athenian ears would never have listened to the stirring strains of his matchless eloquence had not his early settled purpose to become an orator enabled him to persevere until he had fully overcome or was able to control the almost insuperable natural defects of his vocal organs. Thus, too, Luther became the great reformer. The mighty energies of his undaunted mind were aroused against the prevailing errors of the church. Constrained by the love of truth, he hurled his anathemas with all the force of invincible strength against the armed ranks of opposing multitudes, dividing and scattering the enemies of the true militant church, and waved his victorious banner over the legions of his vanquished foes in the days that crowned his well nigh doomed head with fadeless laurels. But one of the most striking examples of success in modern times is Fulton. Clearly conceiving that steam, as a mighty agent, could be applied to navigation, he set himself to work in order to demonstrate the fact. For months and years he persevered in his labors, amidst the jeers and scorn of multitudes, until his complete success put to shame all his opposers and made his *name and fame immortal*.

Teachers, you have chosen a profession in which you may place the seal of your own intellectual and moral power upon the world, so that the voice of ages shall echo your name. As you have but a single probation on earth, make it your definite purpose to write your names, "by deeds of kindness, love and mercy," on the hearts of your pupils, who will rise up to call you blessed, when your tongues have become silent and your hearts pulseless forever. Be it your noble task to arouse the slumbering genius and moral worth which lie buried on all our hills and mountains and in all our valleys. Fully develop the outcropping treasures of priceless thought, of noble feelings, of pure and generous aspirations, which will exist forever unknown—which, without your efforts, will never be called forth to adorn human nature, to bless and save the world.

"Perhaps on these sequestered hills reside
Some hearts now pregnant with celestial fire;
Hands that may the helm of government guide,
Or wake to ecstasy the sacred lyre."

Onward, then, teacher, in thy heaven-appointed mission. Raise thy standard and nerve thyself for the most brilliant successes on life's arena. If God has given thee intellectual and moral power, invest it all in the cause of truth and duty, and great shall be thy reward.

For the Schoolmaster.

Etymology.

I hardly know how to consider this topic, it is so comprehensive. I may begin by saying what is no doubt observed by most teachers of grammar, that the space of printed matter in grammar books is much too large for the subject. It seems to be the aim of some book-writers to bring under the subject of which they treat, everything in any way related to it, whether it be appropriate for the digestion of young learners or inappropriate. Perhaps no fact is more significant on this question than that one of our popular grammarians has introduced a complete epitome of the general subject into the closing portion of his book, where it is not only briefly but also clearly presented in a very few chapters. The topic of Etymology actually occupies only forty pages, and yet I know not of any important fact or doctrine that is not fully enough stated for the benefit of a learner. And learners, and young learners, too, are chiefly the class which is most concerned in Etymology as taught in grammar.

Having said so much on the commendable

brevity of a certain book, the inference I would have to follow is, that whatever is not pertinent to the object is injurious. The main end and design accomplished by Etymology (I think I am not wrong) is to teach pupils to parse. If there be any other design it is surely not attained, for this is all pupils in Etymology or just out of it are able to do in the premises. If they can do anything else outside of the recitation of the text, anything, I mean, that follows directly upon their study of it, I do not know what it is.

I think I shall not be understood to say that parsing is useless. Parsing is a beneficial exercise. It is true analysis. And the reader may remember that I have never disapproved of that. But parsing and analysis both are not more the sum of grammar study than scattering seed is the harvest of a farmer, though one may be productive of the other when rightly bestowed. It is a poor result for much labor, to have accomplished no more of what the book professes to show, in studying a school grammar book through, than simply to have learned how to analyze. It is a miserable reward for the diligent study of a whole treatise to be able to pull easy sentences to pieces and to set the fragments under a dozen or less of heads, while no skill has been imparted sufficient to enable a student to write a dozen consecutive sentences of good English.

Now, good reader, do not despise parsing and analysis, but weigh duly the conclusion I reach as you read it now:—Were the drift of grammatic literature to tend towards parsing and analysis, and only mainly towards such an end, and were all set aside for the present from books that does not tend in that direction, then these two branches of grammar at least would be well learned. Then, were there to be, during such a study of language, proper direction given to such powers of sentence-building as all pupils have in general, the objects of grammar would be gained. HENRY CLARK.

BRIDGEWATER NORMAL ASSOCIATION ANNUAL MEETING.—The convention of the Bridgewater, Mass., Normal Association was held in Normal Hall at Bridgewater, on Thursday, July 31st. A large gathering of practical teachers as well as those about to enter the profession, made it a meeting of unusual interest.

At 10 o'clock a meeting for business was called by the President, Joshua Kendall, Esq., of the Rhode Island Normal School.

At 1 P. M. the Unitarian Church was crowded with a large and intelligent audience to listen to an address from Marshal Conant, Esq., former Principal of the School. The members of the Association, with invited guests, afterward repaired to the elegant and spacious Town Hall to discuss the merits of a fine collation. Stirring speeches were there made by Geo. B. Emerson, Esq., of the Board of Education, J. J. Ladd, Esq., of the High School, Providence, Hon. Wm. M. Rodman, B. G. Northrop, Agent of the Board of Education of Mass., and others. There was a powerful element of patriotism pervading all the remarks, which must bear favorably upon those who were present. An earnest and speedy prosecution of the war was the unanimous sentiment of all. Several young men from the Normal School have already enlisted under the recent call for soldiers of the loyal army.—*Eve. Press.*

Going Home.

A CHILD'S POEM.

"WILL you come with me, my pretty one?"
I asked a little child,—
"Will you come with me and gather flowers?"
She looked on me and smiled.
Then, in a low, sweet, gentle voice,
She said, "I cannot come,
I must not leave this narrow path,
For I am going home."
"But will you not?" I asked again;
"The sun is shining bright,
And you might twine a lily-wreath
To carry home at night;
And I could show you pleasant things
If you would only come:"
But still she answered as before,
"No; I am going home."
"But look, my child: the fields are green.
And 'neath the leafy trees
Children are playing merrily,
Or resting at their ease.
Does it not hurt your tender feet
This stony path to tread?"
"Sometimes; but I am going home!"
Once more she sweetly said.
"My father bade me keep this path,
Nor ever turn aside;
The road which leads away from him
Is very smooth and wide;
The fields are fresh and cool and green
Pleasant the shady trees;
But those around my own dear home
Are lovelier far than these.
"I must not loiter on the road,

For I have far to go ;
 And I should like to reach the door
 Before the sun is low.
 I must not stay ; but will you not —
 Oh, will you not come, too ?
 My home is very beautiful,
 And there is room for you."

I took her little hand in mine ;
 Together we went on ;
 Brighter and brighter o'er our path
 The blessed sunbeams shone.
 At length we saw the distant towers.
 But ere we reached the gate,
 The child outstripped my lingering feet,
 Too overjoyed to wait.
 And, as she turned her radiant face
 Once more to bid me come,
 I heard a chorus of glad songs,
 A burst of " Welcome Home !"

—*Friends' Review.*

Macaulay.

DR. MILAN, in his memoir of the late Lord Macaulay, just published, alluding to his parliamentary career and love of letters, says :

" But throughout this period of his life, the great inward struggle was going on within his mind between the ambition of public usefulness, of parliamentary and official distinction, and the love of letters, which will rarely brook a rival on the throne, the still higher ambition, as he thought, of adding some great work to the treasures of English thought and English literature. In the office at Whitehall, or the Horse Guards, on the benches of the House of Commons, amid the applauses or admiring silence of the House, his heart was in his library and among his books. He yearned for a place not so much among the great parliamentary leaders and the famous statesmen of the land—the Chathams, Burkes, Foxes—as among the immortal writers in verse and prose—the Miltons, Clarendons, Addisons, Gibbons. The auditory which he coveted was that vast expanding world throughout which the English language is spoken ; the fame, that which will only die with the death of English letters. Throughout the whole time of his absence from England, on his voyage to India and on his return, in India, so far as leisure would allow, and during his parliamentary and official career, he was still, with his indefatigable industry, heaping up stores of knowledge—stores which could not overload his capacious and retentive memory—memory whose grasp and self-command seemed to expand with its ac-

cumulating treasures—memory which disdained nothing as beneath it, and was never perplexed or burdened by its incalculable possessions. As a curious instance of his range and activity of reading, among the books which he took with him to India were the many huge volumes of St. Chrysostom's works. Their still almost pure and harmonious Greek, and their importance in the history of religious opinion, (always a subject of deep interest,) carried him through a task which has been achieved by a few professional theologians. As an illustration of his powers of memory, he has said, and he was a most unboastful man, that if Milton's great poem were lost, he thought that he could accurately commit to writing at least all the first books of 'Paradise Lost.' "

A QUESTION OF AUTHORSHIP.—The *Home Journal*, speaking of the "Address to the American Flag," asserts for Fitz Greene Halleck a portion of its authorship. It says : "The following lines were written by Joseph Rodman Drake :

'Flag of the free heart's hope and home!
 By angels' hands to valor given,
 Thy stars have lit the welkin dome,
 And all thy hues were born in heaven.'

"And the following lines were added to the same poem by Fitz Greene Halleck :

'Forever float that standard sheet ;
 Where breathes the foe but falls before us,
 With freedom's soil beneath our feet,
 And freedom's banner streaming o'er us' "

The editors of this paper undoubtedly speak from personal knowledge, they having been intimately acquainted with both authors.—*Es.*

WHAT IS HEAT LIGHTNING?—Prof. Henry, who is good authority, says the flashes of lightning often observed on a summer evening, unaccompanied by thunder, and popularly known as "heat lightning," are merely the light from discharges of electricity from an ordinary thunder cloud, beneath the horizon of the observer, reflected from clouds, or perhaps from the air itself, as in the case of twilight. Mr. Brooks, one of the directors of the telegraph line between Pittsburg and Philadelphia, informs us that on one occasion, to satisfy himself on this point, he asked for information from a distant operator during the appearance of flashes of this kind in the distant horizon, and learned that they proceeded from a thunder storm then raging 250 miles eastward of his place of observation.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Origin and Progress of the English Language.

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THE enterprise of the Anglo-Saxon race has planted the English language in every quarter of the globe. Judging from past progress, we may conclude that wherever the English language is introduced, it will claim dominion. Many, in the light of past history, read the prophecy that the Anglo-Saxon race is destined to enlighten the millions of earth, and, by means of those civil, literary and religious institutions which we enjoy, usher in the day of full millennial glory. Whether this prophecy is human or divine, we need not now decide. It is pleasant to trace the evidences of its truth and to hope for its fulfillment. It is pleasant to believe that in that golden future, when

"No war or battle's sound"

shall startle the nations, the jubilant voices of mankind will rise in strains of our own living English, enriched by languages that have yielded to its power, and perfected by the genius that gave it birth.

But should this prove a mere creation of fancy—should our language decay and yield to those influences that have buried so many languages among the archives of the past, it is still our present duty and privilege to trace its origin and learn the beginnings of its power.

There are two kinds of evidence to be considered in determining the origin and progress of any language. The first is the evidence found in the language itself. The sound and written form of many words indicate their origin or their derivation. The change in the sound and form of words during successive periods is so much of progress in the language towards its present state.

The different arrangement of words in sentences, the proportion of words blended from different sources,—in short, all we can determine by a careful study of the language itself, of its origin or progress, belongs to the internal evidence.

This evidence, when clear, is the most conclusive that can be obtained.

The second kind of evidence is that derived from other sources than the language itself, and is termed the external or historical evidence. This is mostly made up of the history of those nations by whom the language has been spoken

and from whom it has been derived. The external evidence is chiefly important to the philologist as confirming the internal evidence. It is important also because it shows what evidence we are to expect from the language itself, and in what direction we are to look for such evidence.

Since the history of those who have been engaged in the formation of any language is the chief guide to the correct study of the origin and progress of that language, it is therefore first in order.

The habits, employments, religion—everything pertaining to their mode of life—affect the language of a people, and are worthy of notice in considering the historical evidence.

The historical evidence of the origin and progress of the English language is found in the history of England, and of those races that have peopled England. At an early period the Phœnicians are said to have visited England. They sought for some of the useful metals found in the southern part of the island. They carried from thence tin and lead. These Tyrian merchants were more desirous of gain than of knowledge. We have no written account from them describing the place and the condition of the inhabitants.

Julius Cæsar, commander of the Roman legions in Gaul, crossed with an army to Britain in the year 55 B. C. It was late in the summer,—August 26th, according to a calculation of Dr. Edmund Halley, the eminent astronomer—and he accomplished little else besides the landing of his troops. He soon left the island. (September 20.) In May of the following year, 54 B. C., Cæsar again entered the island with an army. He subjugated the southeastern part of what is now called England.

Cæsar gave a somewhat minute account of the inhabitants as he found them. The inhabitants at that time for the most part belonged to that ancient division of the human family, the Celts.

The word Celt seems to mean one that dwells in a covert—an inhabitant of the forest, a woodman. These Celts were a portion of the first great wave of human life that swept over Europe from the East.

The first great migration of men from Asia that peopled Europe is termed the Celtic migration.

In considering the origin of the Celts, we are led back to the time when the bond of a common language was severed, and men began to

be scattered abroad upon the face of the earth. The time of the immigration of the Celts into Europe is unknown. We may suppose that they entered Europe at a very remote period, and gradually spread toward the West.

As the several divisions of the human family diverged from a common centre, no historians accompanied them to chronicle their wanderings and transmit to us a record of the routes pursued in their early migrations; we are left to form our theories from such evidence as we can gather from the facts of physical geography and the analogies of language.

Advancing over what are now called the straits of Constantinople, the Celts seem to have been the first division of the human family that peopled the territory now included within the limits of Turkey, Greece and Italy.

A critical examination of the Greek and Latin languages leads to the conclusion that the primitive ancestors of the Greeks and Romans belonged to the Celtic family.

The mildness of the climate of the countries of southern Europe and their proximity to Asia render it probable that the southern portions of Europe were peopled before the middle and eastern portions.

Another division of the Celts, at a later period, seems to have passed up the valley of the Danube, and, continuing west and north, to have peopled the north and west of Europe.

The Celtic migration was followed at a later period by the Gothic migration, which we shall notice more particularly hereafter.

The Gothic migration crowded the Celts to the western part of Europe. 100 B. C., the Celts were found, for the most part, in Spain, Gaul and the British Isles. Previous to this time the primitive names and customs of the Celts who first peopled Greece and Italy had been entirely supplanted by the manners and customs of a superior civilization, and by the ingress of other nations not deriving their origin directly from the Celts.

Almost the only evidence of the Celtic origin of the people of southern Italy and Greece then remaining was found in the words of their languages.

The Celts, at that time, dwelling in western Europe beyond the reach of the culture and civilization of the Roman provinces, retained the mode of life and spoke the language of their ancestors. The Celts of Great Britain are described as maintaining themselves by pasturage. *They were divided into many small nations or*

tribes, each under its respective leader. They were fierce warriors—fought mostly on foot, but could bring into the field strong forces of cavalry.

Their government was a kind of theocracy or hierarchy. The officers of their religion were called Druids. They were both the priests, prophets and poets of the Celts. They also controlled the affairs of government, and were regarded by all classes with a sacred reverence.

The Druids worshipped in the open air, usually in the deep shade of the oak; their temples seem to have been merely large circles, enclosed by rough stones set upon one end. They regarded the circle as an emblem of eternity and unity, and to them we are indebted for the significance of the marriage-ring.

Some remains of these airy halls are still found at Stonehenge, England, and at Stennes, in the Orkney Islands.

Horace Smith says, in his posthumous papers, that the word "church" is assignable to the Celtic "kir,"—rock or round of stones, within whose circle, itself a symbol of unity and eternity, the Druids solemnized their religious rites.

In the contracted sound of "kirk" or "kirst," as still heard in the north of England and Scotland, this root is apparent; while in the south of England it has been softened into "church."

Many youth gathered about these Druids to learn their doctrines and to acquire the knowledge they possessed. These pupils were accustomed to commit many verses to memory.

In considering the history of the literature of different nations, we find that poetry was composed, by most nations, before prose. Mr. Blair affirms that "it is the concurring voice of all antiquity, that poetry is older than prose"; and, again, "Music and poetry, therefore, had the same rise; they were prompted by the same occasions; they were united in song; and, as long as they continued united, they tended, without doubt, mutually to heighten and exalt each other's power."

One reason why the Druids continued to embody their doctrines in verse probably was that they might be more easily committed to memory. They did not consider it right to commit their doctrines to writing. Cæsar says there were two reasons why they did not wish to write them: They did not wish their doctrines to become common, nor did they wish those whom they taught, trusting to what was written, to give less attention to the cultivation of their

memories.

They taught that the soul was immortal, and that at death it passed into another body. This and many other peculiarities of religious belief, joined with ceremonies that have ever prevailed among nations in western Asia, clearly indicate the oriental origin of the Celts. Some peculiarities of this character were,—the sacrifices of human victims, common among the Druids; their reverence for the mistletoe, as an emblem of the immortality of the soul; the peculiar virtues they attached to the number three; their study of astronomy; and the dividing of society into castes, by maintaining the religious order distinct from other classes in their communities.

A similarity of language between the dialects of the Celts and those of India also argues a common origin.

As the Celts slowly migrated from Asia to western and southern Europe, they left traces of their wanderings in the names they applied to places and natural objects. The hills upon which they fed their flocks, the rivers they crossed, and the mountains, whose craggy sides echoed back the voices of this vanguard of western nations, still bear their Celtic names.

Throughout the greater part of Europe these names are the only vestige of their sojourn. Many of these names were full of meaning: as, Sicily, the country of the reapers, a common employment in that grain-bearing island.

Thames and Kent are Celtic names. The Irish "Kil," which begins so many names of places, is nothing more than a corruption of the Celtic "caille," which means "a forest"; and the "caer," frequently found in the beginning of Welsh, Cornish and Armorican names, is plainly nothing but "caer," "the rock" or "stone." The last syllable, "don," of many English names is the Celtic "dun," signifying "a fortified rock."

Only a small portion of the present English can be traced to the Celtic. It is estimated that some two hundred words only can be distinctly traced to this origin,—about one two-hundredths of the whole language; so that if we are able to gain but little knowledge of the structure and power of the Celtic language, we may console ourselves with the fact that it is of but little importance to us.

Latham has collected the following list of common nouns derived from the Celtic: Bask-et, barrow, button, bran, clout, crack, crook, cock, gusset, kiln, dainty, darn, tenter, fleam, flou, funnel, gyve, grid (in gridiron), gruel,

welt, wicket, gown, wire, meah, mattock, mop, rasher, rug, solder, size, tackle.

Had more of their language been committed to writing, the Celts might have left behind them monuments of their learning and poetry worthy of our study; then would the Celtic more fully have perpetuated itself in the more modern English.

Of all European languages, the Celtic alone seems to have been devoid of that vitality necessary to propagate it; it has always yielded, as a weaker language.

One peculiarity of the Celtic was the declension of their nouns by changing some of the first letters of the word, or by prefixing an article with an apostrophe—just the opposite of the method adopted in the Latin and most of the older languages of Europe. The Celtic word for head was "Pen"; Pen gŕ designated a man's head; i Ben, his head; i Phen, her head; y'm Mben, my head. So in Irish, which is a kind of modern Celtic, something of the same peculiarity continues.

Though the ancient Celtic has left so scanty a memorial of itself in the English, its claims to antiquity are of the first order. It is believed to be older than the language of Homer and Virgil. Recent philologists have clearly shown that it is one of the oldest languages of which we have any knowledge.

The descendants of the Celts are now found in Ireland, Wales, a part of Scotland, Brittany in France, and in a small district among the Pyrenees. The inhabitants of this district, nestled among the mountains, are called "Basques."

The advancing tide of a mightier migration has almost entirely swept the Celts from Continental Europe. J. C. G.

SELF-CONTROL.—A merchant in London had a dispute with a Quaker respecting the settlement of an account. The merchant was determined to bring the account into court, a proceeding which the Quaker earnestly deprecated, using every argument in his power to convince the merchant of his error; but the latter was inflexible. Desirous to make a last effort, the Quaker called at his house one morning and inquired of the servant if his master was at home. The merchant, hearing the inquiry and knowing his voice, called out from the top of the stairs, "Tell the rascal I am not at home." The Quaker, looking up to him, calmly said, "Well, friend, God put thee in a better mind." The merchant, struck afterward with the meek-

ness of the reply, and having more deliberately investigated the matter, became convinced that the Quaker was right and that he was wrong. He requested to see him, and after acknowledging his error, he said: "I have one question to ask you. How were you able, with such patience, on various occasions, to bear my abuse?" "Friend," replied the Quaker, "I will tell thee. I was naturally as hot and violent as thou art. I knew that to indulge this temper was sinful; and I found it was imprudent. I observed that men in a passion always spoke loud; and I thought if I could control my voice, I should repress my passion. I have, therefore, made it a rule never to let my voice rise above a certain key; and, by a careful observance of this rule, I have, by the blessing of God, entirely mastered my natural temper." The Quaker reasoned philosophically, and the merchant, as every one else may do, benefitted by his example.—*Life Illustrated.*

The Old Ferule.

BY F. B. SHILLABER.

GRIM relic of a distant time,
More interesting than sublime!
Thou'rt fitting subject for my rhyme,
And touch'st me queerly;
Unlike the touch that youthful crime
Provoked severely.

It was a dark and fearful day
When thou held'st sovereign rule and sway,
And all Humanity might say
Could not avert
The doom that brought thee into play,
And wrought us hurt!

Ah, Solomon! that dogma wild,
Of sparing rod and spilling child,
Has long thy reputation soiled,
And few defend it;
Our teachers draw it far more mild,
And strive to mend it.

Oh, bitter were the blows and whacks
That fell on our delinquent backs,
When, varying from moral tracks,
In youthful error,
Thou madest our stubborn nerves relax
With direst terror.

I know 'twas urged that our own good
Dwelt in the tangle of the wood
That scored us as we trembling stood,
And couldn't flee it;
But I confess I never could
Exactly see it.

The smothered wrath at every stroke

Was keenly felt though never spoke,
And twenty devils rampant broke
For one subdued,
And all discordances awoke —
A fiendish brood.

And impish trick and vengeful spite
Essayed with all their skill and might
To make the balance poise aright;
And hate, sharp-witted,
Ne'er left occasion, day or night,
To pass omitted.

I see it now: — the whittled doors,
The window panes smashed in by scores,
The desecrated classic floors,
The benches leveled,
The streaming ink from murky pores
The books bedeviled.

Small reverence for Learning's fame,
For master's toil of nerve and brain,
They saw Instruction marred with pain,
And Alma Mater
Was thought of only by the train
To deprecate her.

'Tis strange to have thee in my grasp;
My fingers round thy handle clasp,
No sense of pain my feelings rasp,
As last I knew thee;
Then thou didst sting me like an asp,
Foul shame unto thee!

But gentler moods suggest the thought —
That still thine office, anguish-fraught,
For our best good, unselfish, wrought,
Had we but known it,
And we, with grateful spirit, ought
To freely own it.

Perhaps — but I am glad at heart
That thou no more bear'st sovereign part
In helping on Instruction's art
By terror's rule —
That other modes will prompt the smart
Than thee in school.

Thanks, old reminder of the past,
For this brief vision backward cast;
We measure progress to contrast
Times far and near,
Rejoiced on summing up at last,
We are not arrear.

—*Boston Saturday Gazette*

HOW TO THINK.—Montaigne made, as it were a business to think at his castle. He was on the lookout for ideas and images. A thought would suddenly strike him in the family part of his house, and he would often, not having tablets at hand, hurry across the court and climb his tower, in order to set it down. Experience, however, had taught him that the thought might

be lost on the way, whisked out of sight by some sudden gust of sensation; so he used to take care, before setting out, to tell it to his wife, his daughter or anybody else who might happen to be at hand. Imagine a gaping servant girl of Perigord being entrusted with such valuable deposit! What an amusing revelation is there in all this of Montaigne in his literary character—Montaigne the maker of books. His essays were never out of his mind! He seems ever to have been employed in meditating and carefully inscribing his thoughts in his brain, so that his manner of speaking to others was constrained, dry and brief. He hastened back, as it were, to his own thoughts, for fear he should lose sight of them.—BOYLE ST. JOHN.

From the New York Teacher.
The History of Object-Teaching.*

HISTORY furnishes no records of attention to elementary education prior to the seventeenth century. The ancients neglected the instruction of their children, although they provided schools of philosophy for their young men. The prevailing idea on the subject of education appears to have been that knowledge consisted in the memory of rules and words, rather than in things and thoughts. The practice of teaching by requiring the pupils to memorize all lessons, without regard to an understanding of their meaning, had come down from the monastic schools of earlier ages. The principles of development by primary education were then unknown in all the plans of teaching.

Just before the dawn of the seventeenth century, a keen observer of nature and men, having noticed that artisans worked out their results by inductive processes of reasoning, also that the arts and sciences were progressing, while philosophy and education remained stationary, borrowed the principle of utility and progress from the workshops of his time, applied it to philosophy and education, and the world was aroused by the triumphal progress of a new system of philosophy which immortalized the name of Francis Bacon.

This philosopher taught that the powers of memory alone can do but little toward the advancement of science or education. He classed those school achievements in mere memory with the physical achievements of the mountebanks: "The two performances are much of the same

sort. The one is an abuse of the powers of the mind; the other is an abuse of the powers of the body. Both may excite our wonder, but neither is entitled to our respect."

Although Bacon's attention was chiefly confined to philosophy, yet he struck the key-note of those great principles of education which have become the foundation of the most philosophical methods of teaching now practiced throughout the civilized world. Said he, "Men read in books what authors say concerning stones, plants, animals, and the like, but to inspect these stones, plants and animals with their own eyes is far enough from their thoughts; whereas we should fix the eyes of our mind upon things themselves, and thereby form a true conception of them." Little, however, was accomplished during Bacon's time in devising plans for the primary education of children.

Early in the seventeenth century the inductive system of Bacon attracted the attention of a thinking, earnest teacher of Austria—John Amos Comenius. He seems almost to have been endowed with an intuition which gave him, to a remarkable degree, a knowledge of the true principles of education. He saw more clearly than any one of his predecessors what was necessary for the improvement of the methods of instruction, and he soon made an application of the principles of Bacon's inductive system of primary education. In 1657 he published the first school-book in which pictures were used to illustrate the various topics discussed in it. This work continued to be a text-book in the German schools for nearly two hundred years.

Comenius was an evangelical preacher as well as an educator, and on the issue of a decree in 1624 that all persons must leave the Austrian dominions who would not become Catholics, he took his departure for Poland with thirty thousand families, of whom five hundred were of noble blood. As he came upon the range of mountains at the boundary, he paused to look once more back to his native land, and, with his brethren, fell upon his knees and prayed, with many tears, that God would not suffer His Word to be entirely destroyed in that country, but would preserve some seed of it there.

Who will say that those prayers were not answered, when, within five years afterward, Comenius was himself permitted to return and labor for the improvement of the schools of Bohemia.

Subsequently he went to Lissa, Poland, where

* An Address delivered by N. A. CALKINS at the Oswego Convention.

he became president of the school, and bishop of the Moravian brethren—a sect which has been distinguished for its good schools wherever its colonies have been planted. Here he published his first work, the *Janua Linguarum Reserata*—a new method of teaching languages, in connection with instruction in the elements of the sciences. This work soon carried his fame to other lands, and everywhere it developed the necessity of a reform in education.

By an act of Parliament, Comenius was invited to England in 1641, to undertake the reformation of their schools. His labors there were defeated by the disturbances in Ireland and the civil wars. A similar invitation having been extended to him by the government of Sweden, he left England and went to Stockholm in 1642. War again interrupting his labors, he returned to Liessa. Subsequently he visited Hungary and other places to prosecute his efforts in behalf of education. Again he returned to Liessa, but only to encounter greater misfortunes. Amid the disturbances between the Catholic Poles and the Moravian Protestants, the city was burned, and he lost his house, his library and his manuscripts, the labors of many years. He subsequently went to Holland, and found an asylum in the city of Amsterdam, where he reproduced several of his lost works. He died in 1671, at the age of eighty.

Comenius was the great educator of the seventeenth century. Such was his enduring earnestness that, although exiled from his native land, wandering, persecuted and homeless during the desolating thirty-years' war of that period, still he continued to labor unweariedly in the cause of education, not only inspiring several countries of Europe with an enthusiastic desire for a better system of instruction, but introducing new principles of education, which greatly modified the practices in teaching, and prepared the way, by gradual changes, for the more thorough reformation of schools which followed under the labors of subsequent educators.

In his educational works may be found the first promulgation of the principles and plans of Object-Teaching, and of a graduated system of instruction adapted to the wants of the age in which he lived.

Some of his leading ideas on the subject of education, we will briefly state:

“Since the beginning of knowledge must be *with the senses*, the beginning of teaching

should be made by dealing with actual things. The object must be a real, useful thing, capable of making an impression upon the senses. To this end it must be brought into communication with them; if visible, with the eyes; if audible, with the ears; if tangible, with the touch; if odorous, with the nose; if sapid, with the taste. First, the presentation of the thing itself, and the real intuition of it; then the oral explanation for the farther elucidation of it.”

But inasmuch as the presentation of the thing itself is so frequently impossible, he advised the use of pictures as the representatives of things, that the words which related to them might be understood.

The course of instruction laid down by Comenius commenced with infancy. During the first six years the children were to learn to know animals, plants, stones, and the names and uses of the members of their own body. They were also to be led to distinguish colors, and to delight their eyes with beautiful things. They should begin geography with the knowledge of the room, the streets, the fields, the farm; arithmetic, with counting objects; geometry, with understanding the ideas of lines, circles, angles, length, breadth, an inch, a foot, etc.; music, with hearing singing; history, with a knowledge of what happened to them yesterday and the day before; chronology, with a knowledge of day and night, hours, weeks and festivals.

The views of Comenius are so completely in harmony with the natural means of acquiring knowledge through the exercise of the senses, and with the laws of mental development, and also with the observations and experiences of many succeeding educators, that we deem the presentation of a few of his thoughts, in language more literally his own, due even in this brief history of Object-Teaching. For the following extracts from his writings we are indebted to that most valuable of all collections of educational literature, Barnard's *American Journal of Education*. Said Comenius:

“The best years of my own youth were wasted in useless school exercises. How often, since I have learned to know better, have I shed tears at the remembrance of lost hours. But grief is vain. Only one thing remains, only one thing is possible—to leave posterity what advice I can, by showing the way in which our teachers have led us into errors, and the method of remedying these errors.”

His practical views of education may be discerned in the succeeding quotations:

"Instruction will usually succeed if it follows the course of Nature. Whatever is natural goes forward of itself."

"The first education should be of the perceptions, then of the memory, then of the understanding, then of the judgment."

"Instruction must begin with actual inspection, not with verbal description of things."

"To learn is to proceed from something known to the knowledge of something unknown; in which there are three things, the known, the unknown, and the mental effort to reach the unknown from the known."

"We first proceed toward knowledge by the perception and understanding of the present; and afterward go on from the present to the absent by means of the information of others."

"The attention should be fixed upon only one object at a time; and upon the whole first, and the parts afterward."

"A second point should not be undertaken until the first is learned; and with the second the first should be repeated."

"Sight will supply the place of demonstration. It is good to use several senses in understanding one thing."

"To know any thing is to be able to represent it, either by the mind or the hand or the tongue. We learn, not only in order to understand, but also to *express* and to *use* what we understand. As much as any one understands, so much ought he to accustom himself to express; and, on the other hand, he should understand whatever he says. Speech and knowledge should proceed with equal steps."

"Hitherto the schools have done nothing with the view of developing children, like young trees, from the growing impulse of their own roots, but only with that of hanging them over with twigs broken off elsewhere. They teach youth to adorn themselves with others' feathers, like the crow in *Æsop's Fables*. They do not show them things as they are, but tell them what one and another, and a third, and a tenth has thought and written about them; so that it is considered a mark of great wisdom for a man to know a great many opinions which contradict each other."

"The schools are wrong in first teaching language and then proceeding to things. The thing is the substance, and the word the accident; the thing is the body, and the word the clothing. Things and words should be studied together, but things especially, as the objects both of the *understanding* and of *language*."

"In God are the original ideas, which he impresses upon things; things, again, impress their representations upon the senses; the senses impart them to the mind; the mind to the tongue, and the tongue to the ears of others. The mind thinks, the tongue speaks, the hand makes; hence the arts of speaking and working, and the sciences of things."

Such are a few of the principles in education which Comenius taught — and they have since been confirmed by the experiences of two centuries.

It is difficult to judge to what extent the later educators — Locke, Rousseau and Pestalozzi — were indebted to Comenius for those principles which they severally taught subsequently, but we find much in the writings of each that is entirely in accordance with the teachings of this great pioneer in educational reforms. It is not too much to say that a careful study of the history of education would result in the conviction that many of the best methods of instruction, and the principles of education on which are based so great a number of the modern improvements in modes of teaching, were conceived and taught by Comenius more than two hundred years ago. He planted the seeds which have germinated from time to time, under the fostering care of various educators, and to-day we behold their most vigorous growth.

The labors of Comenius were performed during the first two-thirds of the seventeenth century. John Locke, the distinguished English philosopher, lived during the last two-thirds of that century. He urged, as the chief business of primary education, the development of the faculties of the child; that as the first ideas of children are derived from sensation, so the perceptive faculties should be the first cultivated or developed. The main elements of his methods of education were attention to the physical wants of the child, and the development of the intellectual powers through the instrumentality of things.

Rousseau, who acknowledged his indebtedness to Locke, and who embodied ideas similar to those of that philosopher in a treatise on education called "*Emile*," lived during nearly three fourths of the eighteenth century.

Pestalozzi was born about the middle of the eighteenth and died soon after the close of the nineteenth century. He said: "Observation is the absolute basis of all knowledge. The first object, then, in education must be to lead a child to observe with accuracy; the second, to

express with correctness the result of his observations." "The development of man commences with natural perceptions through the senses. Its highest attainment, intellectually, is the exercise of reason." Although we find no direct acknowledgment of Pestalozzi's indebtedness to Comenius, as we do of the relation of the latter to Bacon, no one can examine the systems of these educators of the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries without discovering many remarkable similarities. It was doubtless owing to the general diffusion of the *principles* so widely taught by Comenius that the *methods* for applying them, which were subsequently devised by Pestalozzi, became at once so popular and widely successful.

The dawn of the present century beheld Pestalozzi at Bourgdorf, engaged with Krüsi in making a more detailed application of those principles of education which were disseminated by Comenius a century and a half before, in methods chiefly devised by himself. While there Pestalozzi wrote that work—"How Gertrude teaches her children"—which attracted so much attention to his system of education from all parts of Europe.

As early as 1807 we find him in charge of the institution at Yverdun, where he attained his highest renown, and where he remained for nearly a quarter of a century. So widely had his fame extended, that persons went thither from almost every country of Europe, and even from America; not merely those who were led by the impulses which inspired him, but by the agents of kings and noblemen, and of public institutions, who desired to make themselves acquainted with his methods of teaching, in order to their introduction into other countries. No similar institution has ever attained so great fame, and no other has exerted so wide an influence on the methods of teaching.

Just before Pestalozzi opened his institution at Yverdun, he received a request from a philanthropic society in Paris to send a teacher there who could introduce his system of instruction into France. Accordingly, he selected Mr. Joseph Neef, who had been associated with him as a teacher, and who possessed the additional qualifications of understanding both the German and French languages. Mr. Neef went to Paris and remained some two years, laboring with a good degree of success.

During the summer of 1805, Mr. William Mac Clure, of Philadelphia, while travelling in Switzerland, visited Pestalozzi's school, and

was so much pleased with the system of teaching that he resolved to introduce it into America. On returning to Paris he sought out Mr. Neef, and invited him to come to this country.

"On what terms," said Mr. Mac Clure, "would you go to my country and introduce your method of education? I have seen Pestalozzi; I know his system; my country wants it, and will receive it with enthusiasm. I will engage to pay your passage, also to secure your livelihood. Go, and be your master's apostle in the New World."

So generous an invitation awakened an earnest desire in Mr. Neef to visit this country. He would fain have accepted it, but he did not know our language. "Two years shall be allowed you for acquiring that language, during which time I will support you," said this noble benefactor. This generous proposition decided the mission. Mr. Neef came to Philadelphia, studied the language, and in 1809 published a small volume setting forth, somewhat in the style of an extended prospectus, the plans and principles of a new method of education which he proposed to introduce into a private school that he should establish in the suburbs of that city. He labored there for several years, but from some cause, probably owing to his inability to adapt himself to the American mind and habits, his enterprise failed. Judging from a second volume which he issued in 1813, on language, he must have been not only impractical, but also have failed to comprehend the necessity of Americanizing the system instead of merely transplanting it.

He probably sought—to quote his own words, uttered in view of the fate which might attend his school—"some obscure village whose hardy youth want a schoolmaster;" for, said he, "to become an obscure, useful country schoolmaster is the highest pitch of my worldly ambition."

Although Pestalozzi founded his system on correct principles, he frequently erred in his practice of teaching. Many of his expedients for Object-Teaching were faulty, and not even in accordance with his own system. In his zeal for the improvement of the mind itself, and for methods of instruction which were calculated to invigorate its faculties, he forgot the necessity of positive knowledge as the materials for thought and practical use in future life. So frequently did he violate his own system in the exercises of the school-room, that one of his intimate friends and admirers said of him, "His province is to educate ideas, not children."

Nevertheless, he succeeded in reviving the true principles of teaching, and instituting the greatest educational movement of the century. He had the good fortune to associate with him Neiderer, Krdsi, Schmid, Zeller and Fellenberg, to whose systematic development of his methods and their dissemination of them, the subsequent success of his system is largely due. Many of his teachers even resigned to him whatever of fame and profit might come from publishing the manuals which they compiled for their respective branches of study while engaged as instructors in his institution.

During the subjugation of Germany under Napoleon, the minds of the ablest Prussian statesmen were eagerly occupied in devising means for raising the moral, mental and physical character of the nation to a standard of elevated development, which, although it might be of little immediate use in their struggle for independence, yet might insure the success of such a struggle in the future. Among the prominent instrumentalities sought for this purpose was an improvement in their schools, by the introduction of the Pestalozzian system of teaching. The king, the queen and the ministry looked upon this movement with hopes of the happiest results. Accordingly, extensive measures were at once taken to test these plans.

Carl August Zeller, who had been one of Pestalozzi's teachers at Bourgdorf, also at Yverdun, was engaged by the government of Prussia to organize normal schools for training teachers in this system of instruction. In addition to this means, several young men were sent to Yverdun, also to other similar institutions, to acquire the best methods of teaching. Thus, in a comparatively short time, a large body of competent instructors were scattered among the Prussian schools.

Introduced as the system thus was under the most favorable auspices, yet with some modifications, its spirit proved satisfactory in meeting the needs of the people for a more thorough intellectual development of the nation. This introduction was commenced about 1810, and about 1825 it had possession of the entire common school system of that country.

From Prussia and the German states the system of Pestalozzi has been widely diffused in other countries by visitors who went there for the purpose of examining the workings of their schools. It was partially transferred to France by Cousin and Jullien. The principles of this system now prevail in the best schools of Eng-

land, Denmark, Switzerland, Prussia, Germany, Sardinia, Greece, and many of the colonies of Great Britain. The methods of teaching which prevail in the United States have been materially influenced by the promulgation of these principles.

Some thirty years ago efforts were made in Boston and other portions of New England, to introduce the system of Pestalozzi into their schools by Prof. William Russell, William C. Woodbridge, Carter, Gallaudet, Alcott and Dr. Griscom. Able articles were published on this subject by Prof. Russell, in the *Journal of Education*, as long ago as 1829. In 1830 and '31, William C. Woodbridge wrote a series of articles for the *Annals of Education*, describing the principles of teaching in the institution of Fellenberg, at Hofwyl, where improved methods of Pestalozzi's system were practiced. These articles treated chiefly upon the principles of the system, without giving details of the methods. Notwithstanding the diffusion of the principles of *Object-Teaching* in this country during that period, its practice died out through the want of teachers trained in the system and its methods.

The institution of Pestalozzi, at Yverdun, was visited in 1818 by Dr. Mayo, of London, and about the same period by Dr. Bibber and Mr. Greaves. Through the efforts of these gentlemen the system taught there was introduced into England. The success of this introduction was secured through the organization, in 1836, of the "Home and Colonial School Society," and the subsequent establishment of Training and Model Schools in London, for instructing teachers in its principles and methods.

In this introduction of the system of *Object-Teaching* into England, it was found necessary to greatly modify the plans of instruction to adapt them to the Anglo-Saxon mind and character.

In the schools of this society the system of elementary instruction by object-lessons has been brought to a much greater degree of perfection than it attained even under the immediate supervision of the celebrated Swiss educator.

The Training Institution of London usually has about two hundred student teachers in attendance; and about one hundred graduate annually. Up to the present time some three thousand teachers have been trained there, and by them the methods of *Object-Teaching* are gradually being diffused throughout England.

Something has been done toward introducing

the plans of Object-Teaching into the best schools of Canada. Visitors from the United States to the celebrated Normal and Model Schools of Toronto have caught glimpses of the system from time to time, and brought away many suggestions for improvements in their own methods of teaching.

About two years since, one who had long been dissatisfied with the results of the usual methods of elementary instruction, and who had been endeavoring to devise some more common-sense methods for primary schools than those which consisted of mere memory of words, while visiting the Model School of Toronto, found the books published by the Home and Colonial Society on elementary instruction. He procured these, together with pictures and other apparatus for illustrating the lessons, and, returning to the schools under his supervision, prepared his programmes, called his teachers together, gave them instructions, and commenced in earnest the introduction of Object-Teaching into all the primary schools under his charge.

Many were the difficulties encountered. The methods of teaching were new alike to superintendent, teachers and pupils. No one was at hand, familiar with the system, to give instruction either in its principles or methods. As a substitute for this, and the guidance of one trained in the practice of Object-Teaching, once during each week teachers and superintendent met to compare notes of lessons and notes of progress. The oldest teachers, as well as the youngest, studied in preparation for the work before them.

The teachers became more and more interested in the system as they saw its results in the pupils. The interest of the pupils grew stronger as the teachers learned to practice the system better. Such were the efforts for the first systematic introduction of Object-Teaching into the United States; and the honor of this achievement is due to the city of Oswego, her earnest superintendent, E. A. Sheldon, Esq., and her progressive Board of Education.

During the regular annual examinations for promotions, about one year ago, the subject of Object-Lessons was added to the list of studies in which examinations were to be made. It was my pleasure to be present for several days and witness the exercises. Notes from parents requesting that Henry, William and Mary might be allowed to remain in the primary school another term, "they are so much interested in

their Object-Lessons," told, in unmistakable language, of its appreciation by the parents. They found their children becoming unusually interested in school, and more attentive and observing at home; and their hearts were gladdened in view of the changes that were being wrought in their boys and girls.

My own gratification has since been repeatedly expressed in words similar to the following: "To any one who may desire to see the practical operations of Object-Teaching, and the best system of elementary instruction to be found in this country, let me say, make a visit to Oswego."

It was at length discovered that to meet the wants of their schools, and secure the complete introduction and continued practice of the system, a Training School was needed. Accordingly, application was made to the "Home and Colonial School Society" of London for a training teacher. They responded by sending Miss M. E. M. Jones, who arrived here on the first of May last, and immediately entered upon her duties.

In response to an announcement that a few teachers would be admitted in the class besides those engaged in the public schools of Oswego, a dozen other ladies assembled there on the 6th of August last. Others were subsequently admitted. Several members of this training class have already left to engage in teaching.

Rooms have been fitted up in the New York State Normal School at Albany for a Model School in Object-Teaching, where the future graduates from that institution will be instructed in this system. This Model Department will be under the charge of a lady who was trained in the class at Oswego.

The Board of Trustees of the New Jersey State Normal School, appreciating the advantages of the system, sent a lady teacher to attend this training class, and defrayed her expenses, to prepare herself for introducing it into their school at Trenton.

Some of the practices of Object-Teaching have been introduced into the Normal School at Ypsilanti, Michigan, by the principal of that institution.

Already several cities and many towns are taking steps preparatory to its introduction, and some have been practicing its lessons for several months. Among those thus actively interested, we may mention Syracuse and Rochester, New York, Paterson, New Jersey, Chicago, Illinois, Toledo and Cincinnati, Ohio, San Francisco,

and might add a large number of smaller places.*

The great interest manifested in this system of instruction is shown by the numerous articles on the subject which appear in the educational journals of the country, and in the repeated and numerous inquiries relative to its plans. Amid this general interest in the system, and the popular excitement concerning it, there is great danger that the well-meaning, but *not* well-informed, may make fatal mistakes in attempting to practice it. Object-Teaching is based on philosophical principles, and the teacher must know what those principles are before she can apply its methods successfully. The true system of teaching takes Nature for its guide; its dangers lie in the want of observation and conformity to the relations of knowledge and the laws of mental development.

During the time of Pestalozzi, Yverdon was the fountain from whence the teachers of Europe and America sought a new and better system of education. When, subsequently, the Prussian schools had been modified by the methods employed at Yverdon, educators journeyed thither to observe and to learn.

To-day educators and teachers from several States, and from various parts of our own State, have come up to Oswego to see with their own eyes what they had heard with their ears of the schools, and the system of instruction pursued here. Their hearts have been made glad by what has already been witnessed, and their longings for some sound philosophical improvement, for some means whereby more satisfactory and practical results in elementary education may be attained, has been gratified by the hope that the glorious day

* The author of this Address has omitted to state some facts, of a personal nature, which are important to an accurate history of the present movement in primary education in this country.

In the summer of 1860, Mr. Calkins* commenced the active preparation of a work on "Object Lessons," which was published in July, 1861. Within six months from its first presentation to the public it had reached its fourth edition, and it is used wherever there is any interest in Object-Teaching. In addition to this, and in response to numerous invitations from teachers' institutes and teachers' associations, he had delivered lectures on this subject in various parts of the states of New York, New Jersey, Connecticut and in Massachusetts. Of his labors in the State of New York, the State Superintendent remarks in his last annual report:

"A large number of school commissioners have interested themselves in the subject, secured the services of N. A. Calkins, Esq.—a gentleman who has given the system much attention and study—who visited and conducted quite a number of institutes, lecturing upon the principles, and giving instruction in the practice of Object-Teaching. In this way the attention of many hundreds of our teachers has been directed to definite aims in the elevation of the character of the educational work."

—BOARD OF EDUCATION, OSWEGO.

has already dawned on our shores when the *philosophy of Bacon, the principles of Comenius, the system of Pestalozzi and the most practical methods of Object-Teaching* shall be thoroughly incorporated into the system of instruction in all the schools of our country.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Glance at South America.—No. 2.

THE AMAZON AND ITS TRIBUTARIES.

IMMEDIATELY to the east of the Andes commences the Great Central Plain of South America, stretching from the eastern side of Terra del Fuego to the head waters of the Orinoco. This vast plain is divided, by ridges of mountains and table lands, into river basins, thus forming the most perfect and extensive system of internal water communication in the world.

The largest of these basins is that of the Amazon. The southern extremity of this valley is in about fifteen degrees, south latitude, where it is only about three hundred and fifty geographical miles in width, having the table lands of Brazil on one side, and the water-shed of the Maderia and its tributaries on the other. It widens, as we proceed northward, to about three thousand miles, the Amazon traversing its entire width.

The Parimè mountains, so called, although they are but a miniature range, being not over two thousand feet high, project six hundred or seven hundred miles into this basin, and separate the mouth of the Orinoco from that of the Amazon. They are entirely unconnected with the Andes, being three hundred miles east of the mountains of Granada, the whole distance so level that the waters of the two great rivers flow into each other by a stream one hundred and eighty miles long, called the Cassiquiare, which connects the Rio Negro with the Orinoco. These two basins are supposed to cover an area of two millions square miles.

The Amazon has its rise in Lake Lauricocha, situated in the southern extremity of the elevated plain of Bonbon, latitude ten degrees, fourteen minutes, south, ninety-six miles north-east of Lima and only about eighty geographical miles in a direct line from the Pacific. It runs nearly parallel with the coast for three hundred miles, approaching it, near Truxillo, to within about seventy miles. In about five degrees, south latitude, it takes a northeast direction, forcing its way through mountain gorges, rushing down innumerable declivities and

over rocks and precipices, until it bursts through the last barrier and emerges into the great plain at Pongo de Manserichè. From this point, which is about two hundred and forty geographical miles from the Pacific ocean, the river is navigable at low water to the Atlantic, which, following its windings, is about four thousand miles. It takes the name of Lauricocha at its source, then the Mariñon to the frontiers of Brazil; to the Rio Negro it is called Solimões, thence to the ocean the Amazon. It receives more than a hundred large tributaries, a dozen, at least, of which exceeds a mile in width above their junction with the main stream. The most prominent of these are the Huallaga, Ucayali, Purus, Madera, Tapajos and Tocantins, on the south; the Mapo, Japura and Rio Negro from the north,—each of which is a mighty stream and navigable hundreds of miles. The mouth of the Ucayali, according to Mrs. Somerville, is more than three hundred feet deep, and in width it resembles a sea more than a river. In reading the accounts of travellers of the magnitude of South American rivers, the season of the year in which such observations were made must be considered. In the rainy season the rivers raise from thirty to forty feet, overflow their banks and thus appear like inland seas. The mouths of nearly all the large tributaries have deltoid branches, and these annually overflow. The Rio Negro is stated by one traveller to be nine miles broad, while Lieut. Herndon puts it down to less than two, and one hundred feet deep. The difference is only the different seasons of the year in which they travelled, and both may be correct. The width of the Amazon, at low water, at its entrance into the great plain, is two hundred yards; at the mouth of the Huallaga, the first tributary of importance below Pongo de Manserichè, it is five hundred yards wide and forty feet deep. Where it takes the name of the Solimões it is one and a half miles in width and sixty-five feet deep, and at the mouth of the Purus one hundred and forty feet deep. Islands are numerous throughout its entire length, many of which are completely covered during the rainy season, rendering navigation dangerous at such times. Many of the tributaries are connected by small streams cutting across the country parallel to the main river, often spreading out into lakes of considerable size even in the dry season, but expansive sheets in the wet, when the whole country between them and the Amazon is inundated. At about five hundred miles from the sea the river spreads out into a spacious bay, and is

plentifully sprinkled with islands, so that one writer suggests that it may not inappropriately be styled the bay of a thousand islands. It continues increasing in width to its mouth, where it is at least one hundred and fifty miles wide. The tide is plainly visible six hundred miles, and its navigable waters for the largest craft, including the tributaries, is estimated at ten thousand miles.

The head waters of the Huallaga and the Ucayali are among the mining districts of the Andes, and other tributaries wash the richest diamond deposits on the continent, carrying off their debris and sweeping it into the Atlantic ocean.

The temperate plants and grains, such as wheat, rye, corn, barley, clover, potatoes and tobacco deck the mountain sides and beautify the valleys; while sheep, llamas and alpacas, in immense herds, yielding wool of the finest and longest staple, feed upon the elevated plains, approachable through these rivers.

A little farther down and the temperate changes to the tropical,—the coffee bush, plantain, sugar cane and cotton, with the most delicious oranges, lemons, bananas, pine-apples, melons, and many others indigenous to the country, grow in great abundance.

The soil of the Amazon valley, generally, possesses a fecundity and rapidity of vegetation that is truly marvellous, in which the world does not possess a parallel. "Trees, evidently young, shoot up to such a height that no fowling piece can reach the game seated on their topmost branches, and with such rapidity that the roots have not strength or sufficient hold upon the soil to support their weight, and they are continually falling, borne down by the slightest breeze or by the mass of parasites and creepers that envelop them from root to top.

It is also the country of rice, sarsaparilla, India rubber, balsam-copalia, gum copal, cocoa, Brazilian nutmeg, Tomka beans (*snuff beans*), ginger, black pepper, arrow root, tapioca, annatto, indigo, Brazil nuts, dyes of the gayest colors, drugs of rare virtue, variegated cabinet woods of the finest grain and susceptible of the highest polish. The forests are filled with game and the rivers stocked with turtle and fish. Here dwell the wild cow, the peixiboi or fish ox, the sloth, the ant eater, the beautiful black tiger, the mysterious electric eel, the boa-constrictor, the anaconda, the deadly coral snake, the voracious alligator, monkeys in endless variety, birds of the most brilliant plumage,

and insects of the strangest forms and gayest colors."*

This paper is already longer than was at first intended and many interesting subjects remain untouched. In the next it is proposed to enter into some calculation in regard to the annual fall and evaporation of water, and the elevation of certain portions of both the Amazon and Orinoco basins in connection with atmospheric phenomena. g.

*Lieut. Herndon.

From the Indiana School Journal.
The Teacher as a Talker.

BY GEORGE W. BRONSON.

He should be an easy one. Of all men he most needs fluency of speech. A few disagreeable twitchings of face and sawings of hand have nearly destroyed my interest in the utterance of one of the best thinkers I have ever known. How much more difficult is it, then, for the young coltish mind to maintain an interest in the talking of the teacher who has to labor to work even the most commonplace thoughts into words. What sorer infliction anywhere than a hard speaker? Is not the wonder that the young rogues stand as well as they do, this *belaboring* with words?

The most prudent teacher must talk much, and physically to talk easily is of no slight importance. The right organs and muscles should be used by all who would talk easily or long.

2. The teacher should be a *ready* speaker: a minute man in the use of verbal explosives. Not merely or principally in the enunciation of theories in the great assemblies where pedagogues congregate, but before his daily classes. His mind and tongue should be set like the most delicate hair trigger; he should be able to bring down mental birds, as they fit by, "on the wing." Never should the teacher have to stop to clear his mental or bodily windpipe.

3. A forcible talker the teacher should surely be, and to be such he must be *clear*. This is the most important quality in any speaker's style: how doubly needful in that of him who deals with young, undisciplined minds. And to speak clearly we must think clearly. A wonderful reflex influence speaking and thinking have upon each other. Clear streams don't flow in muddy channels, and, if you and I can't use language to make a pupil "see" some point, had we not better inquire if the root of the mat-

ter is really in us? Why do our public men say they "can't talk to children"? Not because their great ideas can't be compressed enough to enter juvenile minds, but because such minds will be interested in nothing but good and *clear* sense.

A clear, forcible style must also be *terse*. Every word in a sentence is either a burden or a support. And like a chaste pillar, for beauty or strength, every proposition should bear no needless weight. "Who is this that darkeneth counsel with words without knowledge?" I suppose the truth must be told, the answer must be given: — the careless teacher. When I have heard a speaker make a most excellent point, and then, instead of stopping, continue to qualify the first or make another, until both are spoiled, I think of a painter, who, wanting just to touch some lineament of an already finished picture, finishes it, indeed, as I could, by dropping his brush upon its face. How much harder it is to know *when* to stop talking than how to begin! But the forcible, successful teacher must be *earnest*. Hear the best authority on this subject: Clearness, force, earnestness, are the qualities which produce conviction in minds of any age. If a teacher stops to take one gape, when attempting to illustrate some thought, be assured, meanwhile his pupils will take two. A teacher's soul must be in his work, or it will not breathe forth in his words. Ah, we love the calm self-possession of the good disciplinarian, but never would we have it purchased at the price of that enthusiasm which fires up its possessor, even before his little audience. These qualities combined will make the teacher an

4. Eloquent talker, and this is what he must be, if successful. Yes, let the law sprig laugh, and the young divine sneer at the thought of eloquent tones issuing from the schoolmaster's desk; — the man who can stand daily before the piercing eyes and plastic minds of children and feel not interest enough in the truth he is presenting or in the welfare of his immortal charge to rouse in his breast some eloquent fire, has no soul for eloquence. And yet, the most enthusiastic teacher will be, if wise, a

5. Discreet talker, not a long, random declaimer. Truth, pertinent truth and fact, will form the basis of all his eloquence; — its limit be utility. No man more than the teacher, needs to know just when to speak, what to say, how to say it, or (hardest of all) when to stop. Judgment, judgment is the great thing in every business of life. I would give more for some

generals who have handled one regiment, in one battle, than for some others who have spent two score years in military life. Far are we from despising all proper and needful aids to any profession; we feel too sensibly the need of them in our own, but yet we do believe that unless nature has instituted certain faculties in a man and given him certain normal principles, all exotics planted by institutes and watered by normal schools will bear little fruit.

I have little patience with those who speak of that quality as the only one the teacher need possess. A wooden man is patient, or at least, insensible. But the teacher without tremendous energy behind his patience is a poor affair. Upon how many and various things the teacher must decide, and the decision, too, must be instant. When should come the gentle reproof, when the kind word of encouragement, when the stinging sarcasm, when the stern command?

And do not suppose we think the teacher should be ever lecturing his pupils, either on morals or class studies. O, the power of silence, the force of a motion or a look! — the pressure of a quiet, self-reliant reserve force upon a school. We envy, at least we would emulate, the power of the man who is so completely master of himself that the worst school can draw from him no word of irritation, whose true dignity and self-respect a legion of bad boys could not disturb. Such an one may strike if occasion requires, but will never scold.

Fellow teachers, if you forget all my words, remember those of teachers inspired.

"He that ruleth his own spirit is mightier than he that ruleth a city." Such an one will rule others. "Words, fitly spoken, are like apples of gold in pictures of silver." If there be any place where such "pictures" should be hung, it is in the school-room, and the teacher is to hang them there. "For every idle word that men speak they shall be called to give an account thereof in the day of Judgment." How great the responsibility, then, of him whose every word is echoed in scores of young hearts.

THAT education is incomplete which develops only one side of our nature. We cannot unduly exercise one faculty without neglecting others; thus left to themselves, they soon became weakened by disuse.

In private, watch your thoughts. In the family, watch your temper. In company watch your tongue.

ADVERSITY brings forth purity of character, as the purest water flows from the hardest rock.

For the Schoolmaster.
A Critical Essay.

"Three wise men of Gotham
Went to sea in a bowl.
If the bowl had been stronger
My story had been longer."

The above little poem is generally attributed to that celebrated authoress known as Mother Goose. Of the history of that antiquated and venerable lady unfortunately we know but little. Neither history nor tradition give us much to be relied upon concerning her place of birth, her ancestry or her mode of life, and modern scholars have entirely neglected her in their search for past heroes and heroines. So far as our knowledge goes, no one has ventured to assert whether she was contemporary with Homer, an intimate acquaintance of the divine Sappho, one of the bright galaxy of writers belonging to the Elizabethan age, or whether she flourished in times still nearer to our own. I therefore venture to set forth my humble opinion on the matter.

Mother, or Mrs. Goose, was undoubtedly one of the numerous and powerful family of Goelings so frequently mentioned in English and natural history. I have been unable to determine with much accuracy the place of her birth, but, after carefully weighing the evidence in favor of several towns, have settled upon Gosport, chiefly because it may be an abbreviation of Gooseport. She was probably at the height of her popularity at the advent of Elizabeth, as Shakespeare and his contemporaries make frequent mention of the family, and the great dramatist has drawn many of his brightest ideas from her poems. I give one instance:

"The man in the moon
Came down too soon," &c.—Goose.

"This lantern doth the horned moon present;
Myself the man & the moon do seem to be."
—*Midsummer Night's Dream*, Act V., Scene I.

Shakespeare makes mention of the family in the play mentioned above, and also in *Macbeth*, Act V., Scene III., viz.:

"*Macbeth*. Where gett'st thou that goose look?
Servant. There is ten thousand—
Macbeth. Geese, villain?"

That Mother Goose was living in the reign of Bloody Mary, is evident from the poem addressed to that sovereign:

"Mary, Mary,
Quite contrary," &c.

Of course a Mary quite contrary could be none other than the veritable bloody queen.

At some period of her life, whether in blushing youth, ripe womanhood or middle age, history telleth not, she first experienced the tender passion and united herself to a Mr. Gander or Gander, probably of French origin, and an ancestor of Andre, the revolutionary spy — the G having been dropped in the course of time. As a proof of this, the name of Gander is connected with her own in a poem probably addressed to her children :

"Goosey,* Goosey, Gander,
Where will you wander?" &c.

Their married life was probably very peaceful and their offspring numerous. At this point we loose all traces of her, and, with regret, are forced to doubt whether she died quietly in her bed or was burned at the stake by Bloody Mary. As Fox's Book of Martyrs makes no mention of the latter, we may, in charity to the wicked queen, adhere to the former opinion. So much for her history. Let us now critically review the verse at the head of the present essay.

And first, we commence with the word *Three*. *Three* has always been a mystical number. It has, from time immemorial, been used by witches and fortune-tellers in their practice of the black art, in illustration of which we may quote from Shakspeare :

"Thrice the brinded cat hath mewed,
Thrice; and once the hedge-pig whined."
Macbeth, Act IV., Scene I.

We see that the word *thrice* is repeated, showing it to be at least twice as important as the word *once*. Shakspeare also makes *three* witches appear to Macbeth. Now what could be more natural than that the charming authoress should wish to invest her little poem with an air of mystery? A close observer of human nature, she doubtless knew that mystery is the most alluring bait an author can throw out to a discerning or undiscerning public. For instance, you wish to write a story. Your principal characters are, perhaps, Smith and Brown, the former apparently friendly to the latter, but in reality his deadly enemy. In your first chapter you simply relate a "plain, unvarnished tale" about Smith's intercourse with Brown, hinting darkly at some mysterious affairs to come. Over your middle chapter you write for a title, "The

Plot Thickens," and in your final one Smith poisons Brown by emptying a pint of Prussic acid into his coffee. Now if you announce in the beginning that Smith is to poison Brown, your readers get all the story in the first chapter. But I digress. We read on — "Three wise men." So we are to deal with *wise* men! No miserable common-place man claims our attention, but three *bona fide* wise men; doubtless as wise as was Solomon in the days of the visit of the Queen of Sheba. What a delicate compliment does the venerable writer pay to her readers, by introducing wise men with the first line! Of course she thereby intimates that they are such as will appreciate the characters of the great and learned; such as delight in the contemplation of wisdom.

And these wise men belonged in Gotham. Now where was Gotham! Some ignorant people might affirm that it meant New York, but it was undoubtedly the same with the present German city of Gotha, (population twelve thousand, according to Mitchell's Atlas, third revised edition, published in 1860). Why the authoress selected an inland German town for them to embark from, is difficult to say; but probably, having no Atlas at hand, she wrote somewhat at random. This little defect, however, in no way detracts from the beauty and harmony of the whole. Besides, Gotha is doubtless sufficiently near the head waters of the Weser to allow the probability that some tributary rivulet flowed through that city with water of sufficient depth to float a bowl. Of course it was a larger bier bowl, thus illustrating in an indirect manner the national indulgence of the Germans.

Of their passage down the river she gives us no account — an unimportant gap, and one easily filled up by a reader of vigorous imagination.

They "Went to sea." Why? That, we cannot say. The writer seems to have committed a great oversight in not stating the object of their voyage. It would have been interesting, especially to scientific men, to know whether they sailed for pleasure, or to conduct a series of experiments, or to catch fish for breakfast. Here we are entirely in the dark; but as Mrs. Goose says nothing about a hook and line, and especially as they went "in a bowl," we may conclude that it was a scientific trip; perhaps to see how small a space could contain three wise men and to calculate therefrom the parallax of the moon.

* At this time the modern practice of substituting *te* for *y* in proper names, as Dorothea for Dorothy, Abbie for Abby, was not in vogue.

The next line opens with a terrible doubt, introduced by the expressive word "*if*." "*If the bowl had been stronger.*" Notice here the sententious brevity of the fair writer. She does not tell us in so many words that the bowl was not strong, but again gives the reader an opportunity to exercise his imagination. And what may an imaginative reader not imagine? He may picture to himself the little bowl tossing helplessly about on the briny billows (for no mention is made of rudder, chart or compass) the three wise men perhaps leaning over the side in all the agony of sea-sickness, till some benevolent shark, taking pity on their helpless condition and—but any similar hypothesis might be cherished equally well. It is the most thrilling part of the poem, at once exciting and wonderful, and evinces careful study of the human mind and feelings on the part of the gifted writer.

"If the bowl had been stronger
My story had been longer."

What a pity the bowl was not stronger! We might then have been favored with a continuation of the delightful story. We might then have had the results of their voyage before us, and, doubtless, Science would have blessed them for taking the voyage, and Mother Goose for recording it. But then, we should have lost our interest in the poem, while now we are left in a state of delightful uncertainty. It is only another proof of what was said above, that Mrs. Goose-Gander was probably a close student of human nature.

The poem, taken as a whole, lacks that classic elegance which we might wish it possessed, and perhaps something might be said prejudicial to the measure; but for vigor, and especially originality of thought it can scarcely be surpassed by any poem of the time, and we commend it to the student, whether at the primary school, the university, or in any of the intermediate stages of learning, as one of the greatest glories of the Elizabethan age.

QUAESITOR.

To think clearly is one of the first requirements of a public teacher. The faculty must be improved, like other faculties of the mind and body. One of the best modes of improving in the art of thinking is, to think over some subject before you read upon it, and then to observe after what manner it has occurred to the mind of some great master; you will then observe whether you have been too rash or too timid, in what you have exceeded, and by this process you will insensibly catch a great mind's manner of viewing questions. It is right to study, not only to think, but from time to time to review what has passed; to dwell upon it,

and see what trains of thought voluntarily sent themselves to your mind. It is a superior habit of some minds to refer all the particular truths that strike them to other truths more general; so that their knowledge is beautifully methodized, and that the general truth at once suggests the particular exemplifications, particular exemplification at once leads to the general truth. This kind of an understanding is of immense and a decided superiority over those confused heads in which one fact is piled upon another without the least attempt at classification or arrangement.—*N. Y. Teacher.*

The Contrast.

A little roguish fellow sits,
Abriming o'er with fun,
And smiles are chasing o'er his face
Like beams of genial sun.

His sparkling eyes with jetty shade,
Are peering all around,
To see if in the school-boy crowd
A playmate may be found.

His mind is not on book or task,
But wanders far away,
And pants his restive, wild boy heart
For active, out-door play.

He feels like bird imprisoned, caged,—
A captive in free land;
But many are the roguish pranks,
The tricks in thralldom planned.

And near me sits another youth,
With pale and thoughtful face,
And in his mein is dignity
Blent with a softer grace.

In earnest attitude he sits,
With head inclined o'er book,
And closely scans the learned page
With sweetly studious look.

He is e'en now in heart a man,—
In honor tried and true,—
And seeks to do those deeds alone
Which angels eyes might view.

O, who can tell whence this great change
Or so unlike they are?

'Tis He alone who doth affix
The magnitude of star.

'Tis He who makes the lowly flower
Beneath the regal bloom;
While, tho' unseen, it fills the air
With rich and sweet perfume.

—*Massachusetts Teacher.*

THERE is a second taste of knowledge when some minds experience when imparting it, equal to the first relish.—*Quaestor.*

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. CADY, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Peep into the Dock.—No. 7.

"*The dock must become monotonous.*" Scarcely anything less so. It is a portion of the wide, the mighty, the ever restless ocean. In fact it is itself, as it were, an ocean in miniature. It has its tides and its waves, its times of storm and of sunshine. Not a pulsation stirs "the bosom of the vasty deep" that does not send its vibrations quivering to the hithermost shore; not a tempest throws the wave-wreath round the sea-girt island without telegraphing tidings of its far-off work. We may not, with our imperfect powers of observation, detect each quivering wavelet, and give answer to the query whence it came; we may not be able to read each storm-sent telegram; yet the laws of nature, as apprehended even by our imperfect powers, assure us that they are ever curling and trembling along their liquid way, and might give us many a wondrous message were we but gifted with the power to read. The dock, had it nothing but this participation in the motions that disturb the

"— deep and dark blue ocean,"

could never be monotonous. This alone would make it

"A thing of beauty and a joy forever."

This gives salubrity to its changing waters, and fits them to give support to myriads of living creatures. This causes the health-inspiring breezes to come along its rippling surface, bringing vigor to the frame wasted by disease, and imparting a richer glow to the cheek of youth. "Wearied and withered Age" comes tottering to its verge, and taking in its reviving influences with eye and ear and vital breath, goes away tranquillized and refreshed. It has an ever-varying face. Come to it at early morn, at noon or at the sunset hour, and you shall find a new scene upon the liquid canvas. Now the waters have retreated far and swiftly along the tortuous channels of old Naragansett into the wide domains of Neptune, leaving the green zone of Ulva along its margin with its hosts of snails with scarce a covering, or even, for a time, deserted by the flowing brine. Again the tidal wave comes rushing in and fills the recent void, inviting back a throng of mingled life. The minnows understand its message as it comes swelling in, and gambol in shoals along its advancing verge, eager in pursuit of whatever the interval since their last visit may have brought to gratify their instinct for food. The spider crabs and hermits hasten with grotesque eagerness along the newly-flooded bottom, intent upon the same errand

as their finny neighbors. The eels, which appear to have been slumbering beneath the broad and accumulated fronds of Ulva, now make their appearance here and there, now gliding for a short distance along the green bottom, now thrusting their head amid the leaves and floundering and twisting in the act of dragging some unwilling worm from his muddy home and consigning him to one far less welcome, and now again disappearing beneath their favorite covering of green, and allowing the eye of the observer to seek for other objects amid the shifting scene. At one time the sunbeams fall upon a surface unrippled by a breath of air, revealing clearly to view the busy inhabitants down to its very floor; at another its former mirror-like face is covered with white-crested wavelets which weave a foam-wreath and throw it along the shore as if to make a snowy frame for an ocean picture. And now it is calm twilight. Every varying tint of sky and cloud, tinged with the hues of sunset, is reflected from a mirror of matchless excellence. Revealed in golden light from the clear depths, the "village hamlets" are suspended in fairy beauty from the farther shore. The feathery evergreens and graceful elms appear more beautiful as we see them in the "watery world below." Their tops extend through the waters almost to our feet. The moon and a single attendant star are now partners in the scene. *Splash! Ah that wretched stone!* So dissolve the fairy scenes which fancy paints in our hours of reverie, while the world of reality remains the same.

But I have said that the dock is a kind of miniature ocean. It is so not merely in its exhibition of oceanic movements, in its tides and currents, "its mighty ebb and flow," its ever-varying surface in sunshine and in storm, but in the multiplied forms of animal and vegetable life that move in its changing waters or form the carpet upon its floor. Each season brings to view these forms of life in varying kinds and aspects. In early spring the forms are comparatively few. The bottom is mostly destitute of vegetation except where the coarse bladder-wrack and olive fucoids cling in tufted masses to the rocks. There are not many traces of animal existence. When the tide is out the clams will answer, with their accustomed jet, from their dwelling places in the mud, to the sudden stamp of the unwelcome visitor. A closer search will reveal the snails, in moderate numbers, ready to people the stones with the germs of countless races when gentler suns shall cause them to know their time. A few oysters, and perhaps a solitary crab, may be discovered, or a lone shrimp passing along with a sluggish and melancholy air, like some aged man moving amid the mounds that hide the companions of early days. A thrust of the spear may disturb a nest of eels where they have been slumbering away the cold and ice of winter. In a few days a season of increased activity is ushered in. Even in winter, when the ice

was along the shores, the *Morrhua tomcodus*, or Frost fish, chose the time for his visit. Like birds of passage, these certain visitors hover along the wharves and call into action the fatal grappels which supply a savory dish to many a table to give variety to the stores of winter. But as the spring advances, the expectant fishermen, while yet the winds are bleak and chill, find the cast of their leaden sinkers rewarded by the eager bite of the tautog and flounder, with which they fill their baskets, and bear them away in triumph. Both fish and captors have their favorite haunts, and it is difficult to say which of the two best know where to find them, or resort to them with greatest pleasure.

With the tautog come the blue perch, or chogsets, swarming along the wharves and around the rocks. These the professed fishermen usually discard as "small game," or visit with maledictions for stealing the bait with which they were striving to ensnare a nobler prey. And still the waters of Narragansett furnish few fish more savory for the table. Their moderate size is their most objectionable feature. Their varying colors, ranging from a deep bluish to greenish brown, spotted with yellow, or with a uniform rust color upon a large portion of their surface, their eyes with black pupils and iris of silvery hue, and the blue hieroglyphics traced in front of their eyes, all render them worthy of attention as beautiful objects for examination.

A little later in the season and farther out where the currents run swiftly, the expert fisherman trails his line successfully for the Skip-jack, or horse mackerel, and for the striped bass, which good old Roger Williams says the Indians used to capture with their spears at the fall of the water. These are noble prey, sometimes attaining to a weight of seventy pounds, or more. The *Scomber plumbeus*, or blue fish, is not unfrequently captured in the open Bay.

The shad came among the earliest fishes of the year. About the same time the minnows came swarming into every nook and inlet where the rising tide could find an entrance. Among them are sometimes found two varieties of the *Gasterosteus*, or spiny stickleback, famous little creatures for building nests where, like birds of ocean, they guard their young with assiduous care. Simultaneously with these, various tribes of sun fish and medusae, and among them the beautiful cydippe, came floating in the surface of the water.

The scup and the menhaden wait for the invitation of summer days to make their annual round. The former give rare sport to those who have brought them, with swift-drawn line, glittering with rainbow colors, into the rocking boat. The fields of grass and waving grain along the shores and miles into the interior, bear testimony to the

with which the fishermen have gathered

their long nets around the sporting thousands of the latter. Many a curious, but less common fish, has occasionally been captured among the rest. A burly and uncouth lump sucker, with its appendage beneath its breast similar to the "stick jack," familiar to the boys, has found its way into the net along with the shad. The sculpin, the swell fish, the lophius and the squeteague, have occasionally surprised the amateur by dangling where he was expecting to see a different game, while those who love the sport, have, on some moonlight night, brought the struggling, fighting, biting, more than half formidable shark into their well trimmed boat, to attest at once their prowess and their skill.

Meanwhile the lengthening hours of sunlight have wrought their magic work upon the ocean floor. A few weeks ago it was all of an unvarying dirty brown, save where the sand shone through the pellucid waters, or where the fucus-covered stones relieved the dead uniformity of color. Now the green *Ulva* has carpeted the entire floor of the dock, with the exception of the central patch, where the tall sea-grass, clothed with feathery mosses, sways with the advancing or retreating tide. The broad fronds of the *Ulva latissima* breathe purity from their surface and absorb the elements thrown down upon them by the fingers of decay. They afford protection to races of living things. Out from the openings here and there the eels may be seen wriggling into view, and forthwith again concealing themselves beneath their green blankets. The fry of various fish come in shoals in the water just above in search of food. Here and there a young flounder swims slowly for a little space and then lies flat and motionless like a scale upon some giant fish. The *Ulva* itself is spotted all over with black. These black spots consist of countless snails of different species and various growth which make its fronds their home and food. Not a leaf but has been perforated through and through by their tiny jaws. These snails are the caterpillars of the green fields below. Different races choose their own peculiar food.

The zone of green stretches along the shore, and, extending to a certain depth, is succeeded by another zone where the brown vegetable growth of the ocean extends with a line of demarcation somewhat definitely marked. Within this, beneath a still greater depth of water, lies the zone of red. Here grow the most beautiful mosses that grace the album of the sea-side amateur. Crimson and purple and "salmon and maroon" and other mingled and varying hues here display themselves in richness not to be described in words. When the tide is lowest is the time to explore these gardens of fairy loveliness.

But in the words of Virgil:

"Claudite jam rivos, pueri; sat prata biberant."

L. V. G.

From the Home Monthly.

A Primary Lesson in Natural History.

THE term Natural History covers so vast a region and embraces so wide a variety of details, that the mere mention of the subject in connection with the primary school might at first thought seem preposterous to those teachers to whom the idea suggests only so many more pages of a new and perhaps difficult text-book, to be transferred to the memories of the first class before promotion.

But before we take alarm, let us consider that the business of the primary school is only to *start* the pupils upon the initiatory steps in the path of learning; that a mere *beginning* is made in the primary school; that natural history, vast as its range is, is no more difficult than any other study, and that it is practicable to teach it without a text-book.

On some sultry summer afternoon, the new teacher in a country primary school finds her work lagging wearily. The dull scholars are sleepy, the bright ones mischievous. The first class are reading a lesson which has grown stale from frequent repetition; Frank Heedless, at one end of the class, rattles off his paragraph so that words and syllables run confusedly together, while John Slow, at the other end, who can see no difference between "of" and "for," and has been told for the fortieth time to pronounce the *g* in "ing," draws and blunders more stupidly than ever. The lesson ends and the class is seated; the teacher strikes the little bell which calls the school to attention, and taking a leaf from a boquet upon her table, she holds it up before the school. There are several smooth, circular holes cut in it.

"Can any one tell me how this leaf was cut in this way?" asks the teacher. Several hands are raised.

"A worm cut it," says one. "A caterpillar," says another. "A wasp," says another; the whole school is alert. Even Augustus Lumpkins, who usually sits staring into vacancy, closes his mouth, which he only does on taking in a new idea, and actually looks interested. A timid, reserved boy, who seems to have something to say, is encouraged to speak.

"I think a wild bee cut it," says he.

"Why so?" inquires the teacher.

"Because I read once in a book that they cut leaves in that way to line their nests, and since then I have watched them and seen them do it." This leads to further questions, information is given, other children are encouraged to tell what they know of the curious habits and different modes of building nests which obtain among bees, wasps and hornets, and the teacher finds that some of her pupils have made greater proficiency in hunting wasps' nests than in hunting adjectives and prepositions.

Ten minutes pass quickly in this lesson on na-

tural history, and then the usual studies are resumed; yet in that ten minutes information is gained, a new interest in the works of nature is excited, while the kindest feelings are awakened between teacher and pupils. The efficacy of such an object lesson, in waking up mind, cannot be too highly estimated. To many, to most children, the studies of the school-room seem an abstract thing, which has little to do with the warm, living, outdoor world. The accumulation of knowledge seems to them, if they think of it with a view to anything beyond mere recitation, as belonging to some remote future, when they shall be grown up, if, as is the case in too many of our school-rooms, the study of the text-books takes the place of the study of *subjects*. Lessons on either of the three great branches of natural history, whether gathered from a wayside pebble, a meadow flower, or the oriole's nest in the nearest elm, will rouse and quicken thought and feeling, and prepare the way for the text-books which the higher schools have in store to be welcomed with eager hands. In almost any school, five or ten minutes a day might be secured for such a lesson, and if it could be obtained in no other way, the time might be taken from the arithmetic lesson for it. Arithmetic is particularly specified, because we think too much is exacted of our primary school children in that branch; with most of them it is learned as a task, especially by those who have no talent or gift for acquiring a knowledge of it, and if less time were spent upon that branch in the primary school, a little further along in the school-course it would be learned with greater facility; meanwhile heart and brain might be more judiciously cultivated by the study of the natural sciences, with or without a text-book, and the duller be interested and profited. Though Augustus Lumpkins cannot see why, if one man standing on a hill can see twenty miles, four men standing on the same hill should not see eighty miles, yet he will see and understand, if it is once pointed out to him, why the beneficent Hand has arrayed the polar bear in thick fur, while the elephant and camel wear no such cumbrous covering, and why the bear is armed with sharp and powerful claws, while the camel walks the desert with spongy, spreading foot; and though he may not remember that a third is more than a fourth, yet he will remember that the arctic fox turns white in winter, for his dull eye glistens when he is told of that.

Let no one object to this mode of beginning the study of natural history, that the learning so obtained will be "only a smattering." Surely "a smattering" is better than no knowledge, and what do the wisest of mankind know but as a "drop in the bucket" compared with the well of truth. When one comes to the attainments of a Humboldt or an Agassiz, he looks very modestly on all human achievements in the paths of science, yet values the smallest acquisition.

That it is not only desirable but necessary to commence the study of natural history in the primary school if we would have the children benefited by it, is apparent, because so large a proportion of the children leave school without going through the high-school course, often even without entering upon it. If, then, they are to know anything of a science which shall add to their culture, taste and refinement, and thus largely to their happiness, they should be permitted to commence drinking at this fountain low down in the primary school. The actual amount of information gained may be great or small, it matters little, if only the thirst for knowledge is awakened. To awaken and perpetuate such a thirst, the teacher must feel the craving for knowledge too; she must be a perpetual sympathizer in the search after it, or her labor will be in vain.

Beyond this, however, and of greater moment to both teacher and pupil, is the moral effect of the study of the works of nature. First of all, cruelty is disarmed; its experiments are forestalled, if love goes hand-in-hand with curiosity in her search after knowledge. The wild, rude boy who tore off the beautiful green wings of the beetle, would hardly have done so had he known that the faithful little fellow was performing his daily duty of scavenger; neither would he have stoned the greedy robin which ate a dozen of his cherries for his breakfast, had he known that the redbreasted intruder destroyed more noxious insects than cherries. Then love and veneration are cultivated, where the eye is trained to look for beauty and detect hidden uses. All honor and gratitude to Ruskin, who has opened our eyes to see beauty where we knew not of her haunts, and has invested all nature with a charm, from the rough crag that lifts its head against the sky to the gray lichen which adorns it with its exquisite tapestry. To teach natural history *well* in the school-room, is to teach religion. You may make the little class learn Scripture texts and repeat pious maxims; they may be told daily that it is their duty to love and fear God;—all *that* is well; perhaps they will heed it. But if you teach them that the hand that created the ocean that thunders on the beach, stooped to tint with pink the lips of its tiniest shells,—that His majestic power who lifted Chimborazo and lighted the fires of Cotopaxi, lingered to draw the lines of beauty on a lily's bell, and lay with the skill of only an infinite Artist the tints upon a butterfly's wing; yet that even *He* guides the thread of their daily destiny, and listens to their evening prayer, they will not fail to reverence His majesty and power, the while they look up with childlike confidence to the Father above, before whose face their angels do always minister.

THE moon seems the most unsteady of all celestial luminaries; she is continually shifting her quarters.

Editors' Department.

OUR vacation days are nearly, if not with some of us quite, over. Through the long dreamy days of the summer solstice many of us have enjoyed a respite from the daily routine of the school-room. Instead of the dull whine of the plodding abedarian, the teacher has listened to the harmonious voices of nature as spoken through the varied forms around him. He has stood on the pebbled beach and listened to the never ceasing pulsations of old ocean, or trembled at the roar of his surging billows as the Storm King lashed them in his rage. He has stolen a path among the ivy and fern, and wandered among the deep, dark cloisters of the wood whose giant trees have mocked the whirlwinds for centuries. Here he communes with nature undisturbed until the evening rays slant through the fading foliage with a ruddy gleam, the breezes play around his brow with a cooler breath, and the long-drawn shadows beckon him to the dingy haunts of his fellows. He has followed the winding stream, as through the waving meadow grass it flows silently, peacefully, perfumed with the breath of drooping lilies and modest water-cresses, and cheered by the chirp of the blackbird as he sings on his favorite rush or soars aloft to welcome his returning mate.

Another has climbed the mountain side, whose moss-grown cliffs he leaps, higher and yet higher, until the white fleeced clouds float below him and the azure blue alone is over him. Weary he sits at the foot of a granite rock, from whose ragged side flows a cooling draught. Here he sits, while far down on the plains below is spread out before him a gorgeous picture. The far-off peaks pierce the blue dome, while tiny lakes nestle mid their emerald settings, and the rivers seem suspended in mid-heaven, like silver ribbons floating from a blue arch above.

Another has journeyed far to the home of his youth, to the haunts of his boyhood, to the home of father, mother, brother, sister, where the spirit of love breathes in every wind that plays across his track, from whose time-worn walls the soft tendrils wreath, and with tender links seem to draw the wanderer back, where he is loved and daily prayed for. There perhaps still sits by the hearthstone a mother, with a thoughtful, care-worn mood, sisters, too, clasped in the loving embrace of fond brothers, run down the long lane to meet the long-absent one. Here, in sweet strains of kindred music, blend the home voices at the decline of day. These tones are one, as from one heart ascending, now the old forsaken home seems to laugh in every joint.

Another has sought his early home to find silence and sadness brooding on the shrines of early memories. As the footsteps near the old, familiar gate-way not a whisper comes from brother or sis-

ter, they all sleep in yonder church-yard or wander in foreign lands. Flowers which a sister's hand once cherished, now droop in neglected sadness. The old halls, where once laughed a merry group, are now dark and unfrequented, and as the footstep treads the threshold the echo comes back like a chill to his breast,—“*All gone!*” The aged sires still tremble on the verge of life, weary and sad from the sorrows of time.

“Go to thy home, rejoicing son or daughter,
Bear in fresh gladness to the household scene,
My spirit knoweth in its weary roving
That with the dead, where'er they be, is mine.”

WE are pleased to notice a fine catalogue of the “Buel Hall Family and Day School,” Providence, R. I. This gives the names of teachers and pupils for the six years now past, ending July 11, 1862. Communications relating to the school should be addressed to Rev. R. F. Buel, No. 44 Williams street, Providence, R. I.

WE congratulate the readers of THE SCHOOLMASTER upon the accession to its columns of a new contributor. We refer to the writer of the article on our opening pages upon “The Younger Days of Gibbon.” We hope to be treated to more of these interesting papers from the author's ready pen.

WE have the *Water Cure Journal* under a new name,—*The Hygienic Teacher and Water Cure Journal*. This is a valuable and really interesting paper. It is edited with refined taste and ripe experience. This journal should be in every family.

HARPER'S NEW MONTHLY MAGAZINE has always been a favorite of ours, and the reason we cannot now speak of its rare qualities, is that we have not been favored with an exchange for some time. Here's our hand, old friend.

OUR charming ladies companion and drawing-room favorite, *Godey*, has not reached us for two or three months.

“We miss thee at home, yes, we miss thee.”

THE ATLANTIC FOR AUGUST is really the queen of Monthlies. It is fast taking root in the affections and interest of our wisest readers. Read it.

SEND for one of Ivison, Phinney & Co.'s Educational Circulars. You will get one for the asking. They are among our publishing princes.

WE shall be greatly obliged to our kind contributors if they will, in every case favor us with the name of the author. The reason is apparent.

A HARD QUESTION.—One of the questions is: “Does the policeman take care of the city, or does the city take care of him?”

Now that we have each lived the days of rest, we must again put on the harness for labor—*work* is the word—labor, cheerful labor. It is true that the teacher's is a routine of similar duties, and these are tedious, they wear upon the physical man, and cause us to reach an early old age. But what occupation is there but is full of labor, incessant, tiresome labor. But there is a reward. The glory is not in the prize, but in the struggle.

The qualities which are essential to the success of any occupation are by no means of an extraordinary nature. They are simply these, easily spoken and more easily comprehended,—*common sense and perseverance*. Says Rev. Sidney Smith: “The fact is, in order to do anything in this world worth doing we must not stand shivering on the bank, and thinking of the cold and danger, but jump in and scramble through as well as we can. It will not do to be calculating risks and adjusting nice chances. It did all very well before the flood, when a man could consult his friends upon an intended publication for one hundred and fifty years, and then live to see its success for six or seven centuries afterwards; but at present a man waits, and doubts, and hesitates, and consults his brother and his uncle and his cousin and his particular friends, till, one fine day, he finds that he is sixty-five years old.”

Let us go forth with a higher and more sacred respect for our calling as teachers. Let the responsibility of our position nerve us on to greater efforts, that we may, from year to year, see the circle of our influence widening and enlarging, as we send forth those into the community who shall bear our impress, and say to the world that though humble the sphere, it is one on which the world mainly depends for its welfare and ultimate elevation in moral and Christian influence.

Of the moral dignity of our profession thus speaks a Rhode Island man, the Rev. William Ellery Channing, who was born at Newport April 7th, 1780:

“One of the sweetest signs of the regeneration of society will be the elevation of the art of teaching to the highest rank in community. When a people shall learn that its greatest benefactors and most important members are men devoted to the liberal instruction of all its classes—to the work of raising to life its buried intellect—it will have opened to itself the path of true glory. There is no higher office than that of a teacher of youth; for there is nothing on earth so precious as the mind, soul and character of the child. No office should be regarded with greater respect. The first minds in the community should be encouraged to assume it. Parents should do all but impoverish themselves to induce such to become the guardians and guides of their children. To this good all their show and luxury should be sacrificed.”

A lady describing an ill-natured man, says, “he never smiles but he feels ashamed of it.”

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

From the Massachusetts Teacher.

Examination Questions.—Normal School, Boston, 1861.

HISTORY.

1. What was the first permanent settlement in North America?
2. When and where was the first settlement in Virginia?
3. What effect upon America had the English revolution of 1688?
4. In what battle was General Wolf mortally wounded? When was it fought? What other distinguished general was mortally wounded in the same battle?
5. What causes led to the war of the Revolution?
6. Give an account of the attack on Fort Moultrie in 1776.
7. What was the Boston Port Bill?
8. What were the boundaries of the United States at the close of the Revolution?
9. What territory has been since acquired? Name the date of each acquisition.
10. Give some account of the Missouri Compromise.
11. What measures of John Adams's administration excited dissatisfaction?
12. Name three of the victories obtained by Gen. Scott in the Mexican War.
13. Name the first and the last State admitted to the Union since the original thirteen.
14. Name the Presidents who were elected from Virginia. What other States have given Presidents to the Union?
15. What Presidents have been elected by the House of Representatives?
16. How may it happen that a person may be elected President of the United States by the people, without receiving a majority of the votes?
17. What is the object of the Fugitive Slave Law? In whose administration was it enacted?
18. What important events in the history of the United States have occurred since the last Presidential election?
19. Who was the first sole monarch of England?
20. In what wars has England been engaged since Victoria ascended the throne?

ARITHMETIC.

1. Express by words the following quantities: 2000076540; 2304.05006; 1000000000.000000001.
2. Add the following quantities: Eighty-two thousandths; five and nine ten thousandths; three million and five, and eighty thousand and thirty-

nine millionths. From this sum subtract five hundred thousand and twenty-three and eight thousand seven hundred and nine millionths. Multiply the remainder by four thousandths and divide the product by thirty-five ten-thousandths.

3. What is meant by a common multiple? By a common measure? Give an example of each.
4. Find the superficial contents, in yards, of the walls and ceiling of a room which is 15ft. 8in. long, 14ft. 3in. wide, and 12ft. 2in. high.
5. How many yards of carpeting $\frac{3}{4}$ yd. wide will it take to carpet a room 30ft. long and 18ft. wide?
6. Explain the rule for multiplying one fraction by another.
7. Reduce $\frac{5}{7}$ to a fraction having 12 for a numerator.
8. Find the sum, difference, product, and quotient of 13 1-9, and 4 3-5.
9. 3-7 of 4-5 of 7-8 of a ship is worth 7-9 of 6-7 of 9-16 of the cargo valued at \$36,000. What is the value of the ship?
10. Explain the rule for division of decimals by decimals.
11. How many times will .5 of 1.75 be contained in .25 of 17 $\frac{1}{2}$?
12. What is the amount of \$8396.58 for 2 yrs. 10 mos. 22 d. at 6 per cent.?—at 5 per cent.?—at 8 $\frac{1}{2}$?
13. What is the present worth of \$475.64 payable in 1 yr. 8 mos. at 7 per cent.?
14. Bought 50 barrels of flour at \$9 per barrel; but a part of it having been damaged, half of it was sold at a loss of 10 per cent., and the remainder at \$9.50 per bbl. How much was lost by the bargain?
15. What is meant by ratio?
16. The first term of a proportion is 8 $\frac{1}{2}$, the second 11, and the fourth 6 2-11. What is the third term?
17. If 12 men by working 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours per day, during 5 days of the week, can in 9 weeks dig a trench 539 feet long, 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and 2 10-11 feet deep, how many weeks would it take 9 men, working 10 hours per day during 6 days of the week, to dig a trench 450 feet long, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide and 2 $\frac{7}{8}$ feet deep.
18. A and B can perform a piece of work in 5 5-11 days, B and C in 6 $\frac{2}{3}$ days and A and C in 6 days. In what time would each perform the work alone, and how long would it take them to do it all together?
19. A square field contains 73984 sq. rds. Required, the length of one side.
20. What is the depth of a cubical cellar, the cubical contents of which are equal to those of another cellar whose length, breadth and height are 144, 36 and 9 feet respectively?

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Into what three departments is Geography divided. Define each.

2. What is Latitude? Upon what is it measured? What is Longitude? Upon what is it measured?

3. What is the latitude of the North Pole? Tropic of Capricorn? Equator? Arctic Circle?

4. On the 21st of June, which has the longer day, New York or London? Why?

5. When it is 11 o'clock P. M. at Boston, what time is it at London?

6. Name the principal gulfs and bays of Europe.

7. What rivers form the Ohio, and what city is at their junction?

8. What States are bounded in part by the Mississippi river?

9. What bay is there between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and for what is it remarkable?

10. What are the Trade Winds?

11. What countries border on the Mediterranean sea, and what are the principal islands that lie in it?

12. What mountains and what rivers would you cross in going in a straight line from Paris to Florence?

13. Through what waters and near what countries would a vessel pass in going from Odessa to Bristol, England, thence to St. Louis?

14. Describe the situation of Baltimore, Washington, Richmond, Charleston and New Orleans, and give the distance of each from New York.

15. What are Llanos?—Pampas?—Selvas?

16. What are tides? How are they caused?

17. What are the northern and southern points of Europe, Asia, Africa, North America and South America?

18. Name the countries you would pass in following the coast from Portland, Me., to San Francisco, Cal.

19. Sketch a map of Maryland, distinguish its latitude and longitude, and mark the location of Washington and Baltimore.

20. Sketch a map of England, distinguish its latitude and longitude, mark the situation of its principal mountains, the course of the Thames, the Severn, and the Mersey, and the position of London, Liverpool and Bristol.

GRAMMAR.

1. What are Rules of Grammar, and how are they formed?

2. Analyze the following sentence: "Is it not strange that even *his* stout heart should now and then have *sunk*, when he reflected against what odds and for what a prize he was in a few hours to contend."

3. Parse the italicized words in the above sentence.

4. What is a Noun? What are the properties of nouns, and into what classes are they divided?

5. What is the general rule for forming the plural of nouns, and what are the chief exceptions to the rule?

6. Give the plural of *handful*, *talisman*, *who*, *scarf*, *quarto*, *erratum*, *emphasis*, *jolio*, *cargo*, *commander-in-chief*.

7. What is Gender? Name and define the genders.

8. Write the feminine of *earl*, *wizzard*, *abbot*, *executor*, *marquis*, *hero*.

9. What is Case? Name and define the cases.

10. In what four ways is the nominative independent used?

11. How is the possessive singular formed? Give an example. Name some exceptions to the general rule.

12. How is the possessive plural formed? Give examples.

13. When are words declinable? Give an example of a declinable and of an indeclinable word.

14. Decline in the singular and plural, *which*, *I*, *John*, *lady*, *man*, *life*.

15. Define the degrees of comparison.

16. Of the following words, compare such as admit of comparison: *far*, *same*, *narrow*, *French*, *thin*, *circular*.

17. What is a Verb? How are verbs divided in respect to their signification and use? How in respect to their form?

18. Give the principal parts of *to write*, *to dare*, *to flow*, *to fly*, *to flee*, *to knit*, *to eat*, *to set*.

19. Represent and name the principal marks used in punctuation, and tell their use.

20. Correct the errors in the following sentences:

Where was you when I come to the house and set down to rest?

He done the work very easy.

I havn't got but two pens and I cannot tell certain which is the best.

The enemy whom I saw and told you was there, flew at our approach.

Going towards his house, he come out to meet me with a person whom I expect was a friend.

Our Book Table.

THE NEW GYMNASTICS FOR MEN, WOMEN AND CHILDREN. With a translation of Prof. Klos's Dumb Bell Instructor and Prof. Schreiber's Pannagymnastikon. By Dio Lewis, M. D., proprietor of the Essex street Gymnasium, Boston. With three hundred illustrations. Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1882.

Those who have enjoyed the personal instruction in "the New Gymnastics" of Dr. Lewis will eagerly grasp the new work just published. It is profusely illustrated, and so plainly written that it may almost preclude the necessity of a teacher in the art. A fine article in the *Atlantic Monthly* sets forth some of the leading principles of this work. We hope it may become a text-book in all our schools. Don't fail to send for one.

Mathematics.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to N. W. DeMUNN, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster. The Zero Exponent.

MR. EDITOR:—The zero exponent has a significance of its own, just as much as the sign + has. It would be as useless to attempt to prove by *mathematical reasoning* that $a^0 = 1$, as that + indicates addition. Mathematicians have *agreed* to represent the quantities in the third numbers of the following equations by the forms given in the corresponding first numbers:

$$\begin{aligned} a^2 &= a^2 & a^3 \\ a^2 &= a^2 + a = a^3 \\ a^1 &= a^2 + a = a^3 \\ a^0 &= a + a = 1 \\ a^{-1} &= 1 + a = \frac{1}{a} \\ a^{-2} &= \frac{1}{a} + a = \frac{1}{a^2} \\ a^{-3} &= \frac{1}{a^2} + a = \frac{1}{a^3} \\ &\&c., \quad \&c., \quad \&c. \end{aligned}$$

This method of notation is exceedingly convenient in some mathematical operations, but especially in discussing the theory of logarithms, which are themselves but exponents.

If the writer of the remarks in the last number of THE SCHOOLMASTER was reasoning by *analogy* he committed an error in one place. Let us review his work, remembering that the factor 1 does not change the value of a product.

$$\begin{aligned} a^4 & \\ \frac{a^4}{a^1} &= a^{4-1} = 1 \times a \times a \times a = a^3 \\ a^3 & \\ \frac{a^3}{a^1} &= a^{3-1} = 1 \times a \times a = a^2 \\ a^2 & \\ \frac{a^2}{a^1} &= a^{2-1} = 1 \times a = a^1 \\ a^1 & \\ \frac{a^1}{a^1} &= a^{1-1} = 1 \times 0 = 0 = a^0. \end{aligned}$$

But why does he substitute 0 for a in this last operation, he has not done so in either of the others? If he had done this thing at first, he would have obtained for his second equation,

$$\frac{a^3}{a^1} = a^{3-1} = 1 \times a \times a \times 0 = 0 = a^3;$$

but this is evidently wrong. If he is reasoning by *analogy*, he must have for his last equation,

$$\frac{a^1}{a^1} = a^{1-1} = 1 = a^0.$$

But this is not *mathematical reasoning*. It is merely illustrating and *defining* the use of exponents.

Full River, July 9, 1861.

Care for the Eyes.

PRESCOTT, the historian, in consequence of a disorder of the nerve of the eye, wrote every word of his "*Historicals*" without pen or ink, as he could not see when the pen was out of ink, or from any other cause failed to make a mark. He used an agate stylus on carbonated paper, the lines and edges of the paper being indicated by brass wires in a wooden frame.

Crawford, the sculptor, the habit of whose life had been to read in a reclining position, lost one eye, and soon died from the formation of a malignant cancerous tumor behind the ball, which pushed it out on the cheek.

There are many affections of the eyes which are radically incurable. Persons of scrofulous constitutions, without any special local manifestation of it, often determine the disease to the eye by some erroneous habit or practice, and it remains there for life. It is useful, therefore, to know some of the causes which, by debilitating the eye, invite disease of it, or render it incapable of resisting adverse influences.

Avoid reading by candle or any other artificial light.

Reading by twilight ought never to be indulged in. A safe rule is—never read after sun-down, or before sun-rise.

Do not allow yourself to read a moment in any reclining position, whether in bed or on a sofa.

The practice of reading while on horseback, or in any vehicle in motion by wheels, is most pernicious.

Reading on steam or sail-vessels should not be largely indulged in, because the slightest motion of the page or your body alters the focal point, and requires a painful straining effort to readjust it.

Never attempt to look at the sun while shining unless through a colored glass of some kind; even a very bright moon should not be long gazed at.

The glare of the sun on water is very injurious to the sight.

A sudden change between bright light and darkness is always pernicious.

In looking at minute objects, relieve the eyes frequently by turning them to something in the distance.

Let the light, whether natural or artificial, fall on the page from behind, a little to one side.

Every parent should peremptorily forbid all sewing by candle or gas-light, especially of dark materials.

If the eyes are matted together after sleeping, the most instantaneous and agreeable solvent in nature is the application of the saliva with the finger before opening the eye. Never pick it off with the finger nail, but wash it off with the ball of the fingers in quite warm water.—*Hall's Journal of Health*.

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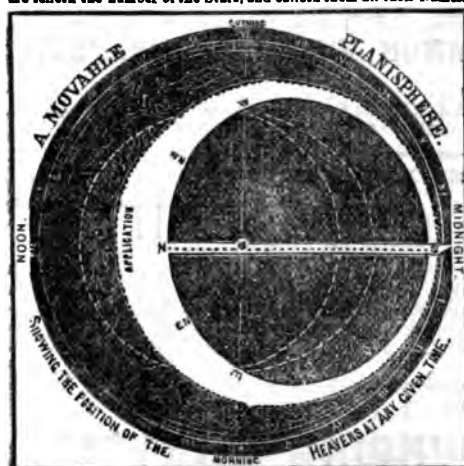
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OCTOBER, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

NUMBER TEN.

From the Pennsylvania School Journal.
Standard of Qualification of Teachers, and
the Means of Rendering it Uniform
Throughout the State.

REPORT READ BEFORE THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE
CONVENTION.

THE topic assigned to your committee for this report embraces a wide field. It will be impossible, even were it desirable, to search out and explore all its parts. Let it suffice if we partially define its boundaries, and assign limits to that portion known as the department of the COMMON SCHOOL.

Neither will it be pertinent to the occasion and circumstances which have called us together, to enter into a minute and extended detail of those items of knowledge essential or desirable to be possessed by those who assume the training and education of the youth of our State. These will merit, at most, but a casual notice. We are here to deal with general truths and principles bearing upon the administration of our great and beneficent system of education. It will be of little importance, as respects our present purpose, to dwell upon technicalities and forms, or to animadvert upon those minutiae of science which, though of very great importance to us individually, cannot enlighten while in search of those principles of thought that underlie every valuable acquirement of the teacher.

Our theme arranges itself, naturally, in two divisions, and presents two distinct considerations. The first, viz.: "The standard of qualification of teachers," is *general*; the second, viz., "The means of rendering them uniform throughout the State," is *special*. One natur-

ally and legitimately suggests some of those leading and essential acquirements which characterize the true teacher,—those points of culture which distinguish him from the mere scholar. The other will introduce a few thoughts concerning a *uniformity* of qualification among the instructors of the youth of our State, so far as the same may be considered practicable and worthy the attention of the examining corps of the school department. This latter topic embraces the truly practical part of the subject, and will, therefore, command special attention.

The elevation of the standard of qualification among teachers, as a body of professional men and women, is the great object which should be constantly kept in view in all our efforts for the improvement of our system of public instruction. The system of examinations instituted by the law of 1854, has done much toward the accomplishment of this end. The first series of these examinations held in the several counties of the State, exhibited to parents and teachers the fact, that the qualifications, intellectual (and in many cases, moral), of those assuming the exalted vocation of the teacher, had, through some agency, reached a standard which could be designated only as *very low*. The indifference of the influential classes in many of our most cultivated communities, had contributed greatly to this end. Failing to recognize the claims of our common system, they seemed content to see the law executed in *form* and not in *spirit*—to know that teaching for namesake existed rather than the reality.

The loose and well-nigh disjointed parts of a system, wisely conceived, were brought together and rendered compact by the act of the legis-

lature alluded to. And, first and foremost, as a means to effect the reform needed, was the provision for the due examination of teachers by a competent officer in each county, to be chosen by the directors as the immediate representatives of the school interests of their respective districts. This arrangement was designed to operate as an inducement to teachers to become better qualified. It at once placed the totally incompetent at a *discount*; the middling applicant at *par*; and the promising aspirant for professional honors at a *premium*.

We have now passed eight years of our common school history in pruning the profession, lopping off the decayed and fruitless branches, and in preparing for a more thrifty growth. By the force of circumstances, we have been compelled to make our standard more *negative* than *positive*—continually deciding that the grade should be *thus low* rather than demanding that it be *thus high*—determining who are disqualified to teach, instead of seeking for and recognizing those *fully* qualified. The fruits of this policy have been ample. The teachers of the State now represent an amount of intelligence and professional zeal highly creditable to themselves as members of a learned profession. It is therefore believed that the teachers of Pennsylvania are now ready for a more positive and determinate standard than any heretofore adopted and adhered to, by which their real worth, as teachers, shall be estimated. They are, we think, equal to a standard which shall include what *ought to be known* rather than one which seeks to find out how much that is objectionable may be tolerated.

This convention will bear with us, while we allude briefly to a few *essentials* in point of preparation for the duties of the school-room, some of which are too often overlooked.

First: *The teacher must be a man of large heart.* He must be what he *seems* to be; and seem to be possessed of an ardent desire to do his pupils good. Young hearts may respect him who loves them not, but they never place implicit confidence in such a person. But this is the character of the relation existing between the true teacher and his pupils. There will always be sunshine in the school where love is the ruling principle.

Second: *The teacher should be a student of nature*—especially of child-nature. The dispositions, manners, habits and modes of thought peculiar to each, furnish ample food for study and reflection. He who teaches must be able

to reach the heart. The head is best cultivated through this medium. But books will not furnish this knowledge. The secret springs of feeling in the sensitive natures of children are only found after the most patient labor and careful observation. Neither can we properly study the nature of childhood in the school-room alone. We need to observe it in other relations. When in school, children are under restraint. Prominent traits are sometimes concealed here which the home or the play-ground will develop. Observe them *then*. See how they are influenced. Why are they pleased? What arouses them? Why do they seem cheerful, contented? Why leaps the spirit at the encouraging smile of friends, and why does sorrow mantle the cheek, which, but a moment ago, was all radiant with hope and joy? Is such knowledge "too high," and cannot the teacher "attain unto it?" It is, indeed, far-reaching. To succeed will require philosophic discernment. It is study which is above and beyond book lore—requiring perception, thought, philosophy. But it cannot be dispensed with safely. This quick insight into the workings of the human mind and heart sometimes comes intuitively. Such men are teachers by nature, and often succeed well with limited mental endowments. Indeed, so sure have been the results of their labors in this department, that many, after carefully weighing the matter, have applied the maxim, "*Poeta nascitur non fit*," to teachers, and, accordingly, assert, "That teachers are 'born, not made.'" We cannot give our full assent to this view, inasmuch as numerous instances are not wanting to prove that even ordinary natural acquirements for teaching may be made equal to the best, with sufficient care and training. But a *study of nature* must be the price.

The views here presented lead us to observe, that we can easily satisfy our own minds as respects the validity of these principles in the formation of the mental habits of the teacher, by reflecting that *culture must always be adapted to the nature and circumstances of the thing cultivated.* All plants require *certain* conditions as essential to the growth of all, as for instance, given degrees of heat and moisture, media of circulation, &c. And yet each species requires a *method* of culture peculiar, in many respects, to itself. Who would think of adopting a common mode of cultivation for the raising of tomatoes, grapes and blackberries? None, surely. And yet each requires soil, rain and sun-

light. Philosophers tell us that mind is everywhere, *essentially*, the same. It may be, and probably is, the fact. But assuming this, it must be admitted, that we find it under conditions exceedingly varied, requiring modes of development as diverse in character and detail as those adopted in our operations with the material world. Mind and soul are sometimes outlined, as it were, in the material:—the eye, the smile, the carriage—all contributing to impress the beholder with their prominent characteristics. Intellect and heart, quick perception and warm feeling with delicate sensitiveness, are indicated in the glance which embodies both thought and emotion, in the blush which acknowledges an appreciative word and in the mingled and changing hues which betray passion uppermost. These are growing but tender plants. They need no hot-house culture. They promise much and will verify the same if you maintain a healthy growth. The plant will blossom. See to it that the stem be sufficiently strong to support the clusters.

Again, mind is buried beneath its load of mortality. It seems content to sleep. Inert as its casement, it acts only upon compulsion for a time. It has scarcely enough of brilliancy to brighten the eye or crimson the cheek. Desiring no communion with mind, it scorns expression. It wears its own channel and the wheels of its progress seem clogged. Mistake not, here, my fellow teachers. The pupils in the former class are not alone the smart ones. Those in the latter are not oysters because shell-bound. Be patient! The dull boys frequently outstrip their fellows in a long race. When the mind of such begins to develop, it continues the task. Those become men who never cease improving. The builder of a ship intended to ride the tempest-lashed waves of old ocean, does not select his timber from those varieties which, in the depths of the forest, have grown so rapidly that the grains thereof are cleft asunder at a touch. But he takes the oak of the highland—sturdy, compact growth of many summers, its grains bound firmly together by the hardening influences of intense heat and furious winds, with which to erect his floating palace. *Strength everywhere develops slowly.*

Says the biographer of Wellington, the illustrious soldier-statesman, when comparing him with his brother Wellesley: "Between him and his brother, had any one speculated on the future career of both, how erroneous would have been his conclusions. At his first school Wel-

lesley gave certain promise of a distinguished manhood: Wellington did not; and yet how easily can this be reconciled! The taste and fancy that afterwards produced the senator, were germane to the classic forms of Eton; while those mental properties which alone can constitute the soldier, like metal in a mine, lay dormant, until time betrayed the ore, and circumstances elicited its brilliancy."

To apply these thoughts to the subject in hand, we remark, that one of the mistakes made in our efforts to educate, is the one which adopts the same course of treatment—of drill and instruction—indiscriminately, for all. It will not be in place to enlarge upon this point in this report.

Third: *Teachers should be able to teach without the use of a text-book.* Text-books are of use only for *assigned lessons*. And, even then, the teacher may as well test his classes upon them independent of the book—calling for *ideas* rather than for *words*, in a given order. But instruction and drill—both of which are entirely distinct from the mere hearing of lessons,—must be given without the book, as the clergyman preaches without his Bible, as the physician advises and administers with his theories of medicine at home in his ponderous folios, as the lawyer pleads the cause of his client without constant reference to the statutes. This ability will lead to the habit of assigning lessons *by topic*, instead of *by the page*, and give pupils a more enlarged view of every subject of study. Too many efforts are made to put the teacher in the text-book. Allow us to suggest that this is too low a sphere to be occupied by a *Professor*, and that it may serve a better purpose to have the teacher in the *school-room*, allowing him, for the sake of his pupils, a *tolerably* wide range for thought.

Fourth: *Aptness in illustration* constitutes an essential qualification of the teacher. Theories, classifications and concise generalizations of scientific truth, however nicely and logically presented, do not embody the *soul* of teaching. To children, they are forms without life—skeletons unclothed. Their constant presentation to pupils, unaccompanied with suitable illustrations, induces an herculean effort to *memorise* the words, sentences and paragraphs which are used in the book, or by the teacher to express them. The young, wholly bent to this effort, soon become parrots, machines. Power of thought, the thing most needed, is enfeebled, and memory itself becomes dissipated and weak.

from over exertion. It is the choice, pointed, apt illustration, which leads out the growing mind. *Synthesis* first, *analysis* finally. This order is but seldom reversed in teaching; though the two principles are often so united in a single exercise as to require discernment to separate them. The teacher should know how to do this, using each at will. Induction and deduction are the keys which unlock the storehouse of truth.

Fifth: *A correct use of language is a "sine qua non"* in a true teacher. Correct expression leads to correctness of thought. Indeed, so closely are words and thought allied, that it is doubtful whether we think *at all*, without thinking in words. A more persistent effort, both by means of requisition and example, should be made to preserve the purity, the vigor, the conciseness and the power of our noble English tongue. How absurd and provocative of similes, to listen to recitations in grammar, and hear teacher and pupils talk glibly of nouns and verbs, propositions and phrases, of government and agreement, disjunctives and conjunctives, cases and co relatives — all parties, in the meantime, violating established usages of the language with impunity. One pedagogue in one section talks of the "teown" (town), and the "ceow" (cow); another of the true "Gaud" (God) and the "servus" (service) which is his due; another speaks of a "cam" (calm) day, but instantly corrects himself, by observing that it is properly "caum," according to the authorities. In other localities, we hear of "winne-gar" (vinegar), and "wittals" (victuals), from the lips of those who are employed to form the habits of our children. The teacher of our youth used to speak of the "heft" of an article, meaning its weight. Not many leagues distant from the metropolis of our State, the following incident occurred. A teacher addressed a pupil as they met at the door of the school-room one morning, as follows: "Good morning, James, the 'hair' is cool." The shrewd boy raised his cap, and running his fingers through his curly locks, said, "mine ain't, though. The disconcerted teacher defended his statement by retorting, that he "did not mean the 'air' of the 'ed,' but the 'hair' of the 'hatmosphere.'"

In another department we meet with "aint," "taint," "musnt," "arent," and the like. *Them* hats; *I seen* him; *this here* lesson; *new* beginners; adjectives *relates* to nouns, &c., are so common as to be recognised as mementoes of

the school life of whole generations. Again, since a rose smells, it of course smells *sweetly*. Boys should sit *erectly* at their seats, &c. But we need not multiply instances of this class, as our only design is to illustrate. What is teaching worth when given with such examples continually before the mind of the learner?

We have thus named a few of the more prominent elements which enter into the *real* qualification of an instructor of youth; and which, with others of like character, should be incorporated in every standard which assumes to assign limits to his acquirements. These, with a high-toned moral character, underlie all that is valuable in learning, in culture, in mental and in personal worth.

Theories of teaching must find, in such attainments as these, a basis upon which to build, or they cannot, however correct and philosophical, be of any avail. The building cannot stand without a foundation. Systems may be studied and learned with advantage, no doubt. But those who are to test them, must possess *executive ability*. In the matter of teaching, this executive ability lies in the possession of those qualities of mind and heart which we have just named; and, therefore, they are essential to a *professional* standard. Observed closely, they will be found to include all — thorough knowledge of what is taught, systematic presentation with ability to discipline and govern.

A New Sculptor.

BY MRS. JULIA WARD HOWE.

ONCE to my Fancy's hall a stranger came,
Of men unwonted,
And its pale shapes of glory without shame
Or speech confronted.
Fair was my hall,—a gallery of gods
Smoothly appointed;
With Nymphs and Satyrs from the dewy sods
Freshly anointed.
Great Jove sat throned in State, with Hermes near,
And fiery Bacchus;
Falus and Pluto, and those powers of Fear
Whose visions rack us.
Artemis wore her crescent free of stars,
The hunt just scented;
Glad Aphrodite met the warrior Mars,
The myriad-tented.
Rude was my visitant, of sturdy form,
Draped in such clothing
As the world's great, whom luxury makes warm,

Look on with loathing.

And yet, methought, his service-badge of soil
With honor wearing;
And in his dexter hand, embossed with toll,
A hammer bearing.

But while I waited till his eye should sink,
O'ercome of beauty,
With heart impatience brimming to the brink
Of courteous duty,—

He smote my marbles many a murderous blow,
His weapon poisoning;
I, in my wrath and wonderment of woe,
No comment voicing.

"Come, sweep this rubbish from the workman's
way,
Wreck of past ages.
Afford me here a lump of harmless clay.
Ye grooms and pages!"

Then from that voidness of our mother Earth,
A frame he builded
Of a new feature,—with the power of birth
Fashioned and welded.

It had a might mine eyes had never seen,
A mien, a stature,
As if the centuries that rolled between
Had greatedened Nature.

It breathed, it moved; above Jove's classic sway
A space was won it:
The rustic sculptor motioned; then "To-day"
He wrote upon it.

"What man art thou?" I cried, "and what this
wrong
That thou has wrought me?
My marbles lived on symmetry and song;
Why hast thou brought me

"A form of all necessities, that asks
Nurture and feeding!
Not this the burden of my maidenhood's tasks,
Nor my high breeding."

"Behold," he said, "Life's great impersonate,
Nourished by Labor!
Thy gods are gone with old-time Faith and Fate;
Here is thy Neighbor."

—*Atlantic Monthly for September.*

Up to the time of the Emperor Charles V., when a king of France, England or Spain was addressed, he was styled, "Your Grace"; but Charles, wishing to place himself in a higher rank than other monarchs, demanded the title of "Majesty"; a distinction which did not long continue, for the other sovereigns of Europe quickly followed his example; and, in our day, all kings, whether rulers of small or great states, are equally styled, "Your Majesty."

For the Schoolmaster.

Syntax.

SYNTAX is the reverse of Etymology, as synthesis is the reverse of analysis. If, then, a pupil have thoroughly mastered the language in its parts, he is prepared to learn how to put together what he has learned to consider as elements. It is the province of Syntax to teach him to do this. What is of greater consequence now, therefore, than construction? He is ready for it if he has mastered analysis, for he has already known the material of composition and he wants now to know how to use it.

In order to parse, the pupil must have learned certain of the rules generally laid down under the head of Syntax. These were such of them as concerned the agreement of predicates with subjects; of pronouns with antecedents; of articles with nouns;—the government of transitive verbs, and prepositions, and participles, and the offices of conjunctions. These, or such as these, seem more intimately applicable to grammar as it relates to an examination of its parts of speech, than any of the other rules are. They may all be applied, to a great extent, before the topic of Syntax is reached. But now that the pupil has arrived at this new topic, he is to learn how to put together, for himself, such sentences of the construction of others as all along he has been cutting to pieces. Other rules are therefore given him, to caution him as to certain incorrect methods of construction. And here it is very much to the disgrace of grammar makers that they have not made some plain directions to pupils by which they may in some way construct sentences for themselves.

But in the absence of such directions, a student is given numerous erroneous sentences to correct, under each rule. If he corrects them faithfully, his mind becomes stored with wrongly or badly formed constructions, serving, though much to his disadvantage in this respect, as warning to avoid similar errors himself.

It were better to combine with this sort of discipline, for it may not be fully ignored, the exercise of the pupil in writing for himself. Show him how to place subject and predicate. Tell him where belongs the adverbial, where the adjective element. Exhibit the force of various modifications that affect the sense of sentences on account of the position of modifying words; and if you have skill, teach him to avoid weakness of diction and to attain grammatical

strength, along with purity, perspicuity, viva city, elegance, animation and euphony. To do this, perpetual exercise is needed. Having done it, the step is easy, I think, into Rhetoric and mayhap into Prosody.

The latter topic might well be almost omitted in the primary study of grammar. As I write, I have under my hand a very celebrated work on grammar, or an abridgement of a work, which disposes of the whole matter in about a page and a half of space. I will not make, now, any further comment on the topic. Some more fortunate student of the language may yet discover the benefit of studying Prosody as it is commonly taught, and I willingly resign to him, whoever he may be, the honor and the profit of criticism upon the subject.

HENRY CLARK.

STREET EDUCATION.—One cold, rainy day in the year 1850, a stranger came to my father's door. "Never," said my mother, "shall I forget his countenance. He wore a look of sorrow such as I have never seen upon man before." The wind was howling mournfully down the street, and the rain beating furiously down, in fit keeping with his sorrow, and the tears that inwardly were falling upon his heart.

He said not a word, but with a trembling hand reached out to my father a paper. It was a petition, signed by many of the citizens, to delay, for a few months, the execution of his son. Young A—— was a lad of only eighteen years, who then lay in prison, under sentence of death. His crime was arson.

Night after night had the city been alarmed by fires. Fire after fire followed in rapid and terrible succession that winter. So frequent did they become that no citizen retired at night without leaving everything in readiness for a fire, expecting before morning that his house would be wrapped in flames. The watch of the city was doubled, and doubled again, but seemingly to no purpose. Still factories and stables, stores, churches, and even dwelling houses were laid in ruins, by the terrible torches of the incendiaries. Thousands of dollars were offered for their arrest, but, undiscovered, they continued their work of destruction. At last the vigilant eye of one of the police caught young A—— in the very act of setting fire to a building. He was arrested, tried and sentenced to be immediately hung.

During the course of his trial another young man, of twenty-three years of age, was found to be his accomplice in crime, and received the

sentence of death, which was executed in the fall of 1851.

The parents of A——, dressed in the deepest mourning, went with their petition to the governor. He mercifully granted their request. The sentence was not only delayed, but was eventually commuted to "state prison for life." And, for aught I know, he is to-day dragging out his miserable life within the walls of a prison.

These young men were both members of fire companies. None worked harder than they to extinguish the fires their own hands had kindled. It was the excitement of the fire and the carousal which always followed, but most of all, their street education, which led them to their course of crime. "O," said A——, while under sentence of death, "had I listened to the entreaties of my godly mother to stay at home evenings I should not be here!"

In our large towns and cities thousands of young men are annually ruined by their street education. Beyond the restraints of home and in contact with the vile characters who walk the streets in evil idleness through the watches of the night, what wonder that so many perish, and perish so young! There is no place where a young man is so free from temptation as at his home, and nothing will sooner lead him to ruin than a street education.—*Christian Advocate and Journal*.

GOOD AND BAD BOOKS.—A flood of books, newspapers, writings of all sorts, good and bad, is spreading over the whole land, and young and old will read them. We cannot stop that, we ought not; it is God's ordinance. It is more; it is God's grace and mercy that we have a free press—liberty for every man, that if he has any of God's truth to tell, he may tell it out boldly, in books or otherwise. A blessing from God! one which we should reverence for God knows it was dearly bought. Before our forefathers could buy it for us, many an honored man left house and home to die in the battlefield or on the scaffold, fighting and witnessing for the right of every man to whom God's word comes to speak God's word openly to his countrymen.

A blessing, and an awful one! for the same gate which lets in good lets in evil. The law dare not silence bad books. It dare not root up the tares lest it root up the wheat also. The men who died to buy us liberty knew that it was better to let in a thousand bad books than

to shut out one good one; for a grain of God's truth will ever outweigh a ton of the devil's lies. We cannot then silence evil books, but we can turn away our eyes from them; we can take care that what we read, and what we let others read, shall be good and wholesome.

Now, if ever, are we bound to remember that books are words, and that words come either from Christ or the devil; now, if ever, are we bound to put holy and wise books, both religious and worldly, into the hands of all around us, and if, poor souls! they must needs eat of the fruit of the tree of knowledge they may also eat of the tree of life; and now, if ever, are we bound to pray to Christ the word of God, that He will raise up among us wise and holy writers, and give them words and utterance to speak to the hearts of all the message of God's covenant, and that He may confound the devil and his lies, and all that swarm of vile writers who are filling the land with trash, filth, blasphemy and covetousness; with books which teach men that our wise forefathers, who built our churches and founded our Constitution, were but ignorant knaves and fanatics, and that selfish money-making and godless licentiousness are the only true wisdom; and so turn the Divine power of words and the inestimable blessing of a free press into the devil's engine, and not Christ's the word of God. But their words shall be brought to naught.—*Kings'ey.*

Personal and Literary.

Louis Blanc has just completed the twelfth and last volume of his "History of the French Revolution," commenced seventeen years ago in France, and now terminated in England and in exile.

Professor Dollinger, of Munich, whose work on the "Temporal Power" excited so much interest, has in the press a book on the "History of the Papacy in the Middle Ages."

Mrs. Lovell, the last link but one of a generation of which Southey, Coleridge, Cottle, and others of literary eminence formed part, died recently at the advanced age of ninety-one years at Lairthwie Cottage, Leswick, the residence of Miss Kate Southey, the daughter of the late poet-laureate.

A correspondent of a Viennese paper gravely announces that Garibaldi is being supplied with funds by the English Bible Societies!

The ex-King Frances II. of Naples is about soon to fix his residence definitely in Austria.

In addition to purchases already made on his account, may be added that of a large domain in Hungary, belonging to the family of the Counts de Vicay. This property has been bought for 1,400,000 florins (£105,200) through the agency of a medical man at Pesth.

The first installment of a new work by Dr. Hartweg, the celebrated naturalist, entitled, "The Underground World, its Treasures and its Wonders," has been published.

The great cartoon by Kaulback known as the "Times of the Reformation," painted for the new museum at Berlin, was recently finished. It will be exhibited publicly.

The publishers of M. Theirs' "History of the Consulate and Empire," have contracted with the celebrated author for a "History of the Restoration."

The Emperor and Empress of Russia have made a journey into the Baltic provinces, and were most cordially received by the people.

Waiting for 'Pa.

THREE little forms in the twilight gray,
Scanning the shadows across the way;
Six little eyes,—four black, two blue,—
Brimful of love and happiness too,
Watching for 'Pa.

May, with her placid and thoughtful brow,
Gentle face beaming with smiles just now;
Willie the rogue, so loving and gay,
Stealing sweet kisses from sister May!
Watching for 'Pa.

Nellie, with ringlets of sunny hue,
Cosily nestled between the two;
Pressing her cheek to the window-pane—
Wishing the absent one home again:
Watching for 'Pa.

Oh, how they gaze at the passers-by!
"He's coming at last!" they gaily cry.
"Try again, my pets!" exclaims mamma,
And Nellie adds, "There's the twilight star
"Watching for 'Pa."

Jack nods and smiles, as with busy feet
He lights the lamps of their quiet street:
That sweet little group he knows full well,—
May and Willie, with golden-haired Nell,
Watching for 'Pa.

Soon joyous shouts from the window-seat,
And eager patter of childish feet—
Gay musical chimes ring through the hall,
A manly voice responds to the call—
"Welcome, Papa!"

—Child at Home.

EVILS OF MENTAL PRECOCITY.—The following paragraph from Dr. W. A. Cornell's late work, entitled, "How to Enjoy Life," presents a subject which should be well understood by parents and teachers of precocious children: "The premature development of the mind and neglect of the body have long been prominent evils in our educational system. It is often very pleasant to fond parents to see how bright, intelligent and witty their children are; and they often find great satisfaction in showing to others the brilliancy and mental sprightliness of their precocious darlings. Such parents know not what they are doing. All the praise lavished by such parental folly and fond aunts and doting grand-parents and injudicious friends, tends to the serious injury and certain destruction of their children. Their keen flashes and sparkling witticisms are but the indications of an over-stretched mind and a neglected body. Our many systems of education thus destroy many children every year. This neglect of the physical and stimulating the mental man is to be deplored, from the fact that this early precocity is wholly unnecessary, because many of the best educated and most useful men the world has ever seen were very dull pupils in early childhood. Andrew Fuller, Sir Walter Scott and Daniel Webster were very dull scholars when children; and yet who has done more in theological discussion than the former? Or who in the world of intellect than the second? Or who at the Bar or in the Senate than the latter?"

A VISIT TO ROBINSON CRUSOE'S ISLAND.—While on board the ship *Golden Rocket*, lying at Greenwich Dock, we were permitted by Capt. C. N. Pendleton to examine his log-book, in which he gives an account of his visit to the Island of Juan Fernandez (Robinson Crusoe's Island). The ship was on her passage to this port from Boston, and had on board fifty-five passengers (twenty-five of whom were ladies,) who intend to make California their future place of residence. Getting short of water, Captain Pendleton decided to stop at Juan Fernandez for a further supply, and therefore shaped his course thither—the Island being nearly in his track. At six p. m., on the evening of March 24, they doubled the eastern end of the Island, and at seven rounded to off the bay of St. Joseph, at the head of which the few inhabitants now remaining on the island are located. The facilities for loading water at the island Capt. Pendleton represents to be not very good. The

casks must be taken on shore and filled, rolled back into the water and parbuckled into the boat. While the crew were at this work, the passengers rambled off in different directions to make discoveries. The island is twenty-five miles long by about four in breadth. The land is very high, rising in rugged, precipitous peaks, one of them called Tunkue, 3,500 feet above the level of the sea. The peaks are generally overhung with clouds. The valleys are exceedingly fertile, the grass growing to the height of six or eight feet.

Figs, strawberries, peaches and cherries abound in their season. The *Golden Rocket* was there in the season of peaches, and the valleys and hillsides were full of trees and they were loaded down with delicious fruit. Capt. Pendleton bought four barrels of the inhabitants, and the passengers about as many more. Strawberries flourish best in December and January. There are three remarkable caves in the sides of the hill facing the harbor about thirty feet in length, twenty-five in width and about the same in height. The inhabitants now number but fourteen, of whom Messrs. Day and Kirkaldie, from Valparaiso, are the chief persons; they have been appointed overseers of the island by the Chilean Government. Formerly a penal colony, numbering five hundred, was located here, and the caves above mentioned were used by them, but the project was found to be impracticable, and the convicts were taken back to the main land. The *Golden Rocket* anchored on the opposite side from that upon which Selkirk lived, and there being a mountain to cross to reach the Robinson Crusoe abode, no one ventured to make the journey. The best landing is on the eastern side, but the water is twenty fathoms deep at the head of the bay, and in some places, so bold is the shore, that a boat tied by her painter and drifting to the limits, would be in seventy-five fathoms. An immense number of goats are running wild over the island, and an abundance of fish are taken on the coast. The water is obtained from a number of never-failing rivulets trickling down over the rocks from the cloud-capped mountains.—*San Francisco Times.*

The philosophers tell us that the rain which falls from the clouds makes a component part of whatever grows upon the earth. Thus, in a passing shower we may be unconsciously pelted with the component parts of bulls, sheep, poets, patriots and editors.

From the Ohio Educational Monthly.
Thoughts on American Schools.—Examinations of Teachers.

BY T. E. SULLIOT.

To one like myself, brought up at the music of the drum under the barrack-like system by which Napoleon wished to put the whole mind of France into uniform and to drill the youth into a body of soldiers, instead of educating them into a nation of citizens; who afterward found in England the Lancasterian or Monitorial system to be the only provision for the education of the masses, or *common people*, as they are elegantly designated by the *genteel* minority of the nation;—to such as I, your Union Schools, trammelled by no central, conservative influence, only harmonizing with one another through the land in unity of spirit and of aim, set up by and for the people, open to all, rich and poor, with their graduation of classes and studies under the fostering and vigilant care of an earnest and experienced superintendent, present a spectacle of deep interest.

As an adopted citizen of the Republic, I share your just pride in those truly national institutions and claim the privilege of trying to lend a helping hand in order to raise them to a still higher degree of efficiency.

As the health of the animal body depends first on a due supply of pure blood to convey nourishment to every part; and secondly, on a healthy nervous influence to stimulate the secretion of that vital fluid, so the health of our schools, their growth by which they can keep up with the ever-increasing wants of the people and counteract noxious influences, depend on a supply of teachers possessed with the same spirit of self-improvement.

I need not discuss the unspeakable advantages of normal schools for training teachers; but there is another point on which I am anxious to communicate with your readers—*teachers' examinations*.

I have attended some of them; I have looked over lists of questions prepared for various localities; I have conversed with a few who passed through the ordeal. I hope I shall not be thought too presuming if I say that, on the whole, the result seemed to me rather unsatisfactory.

1. The arithmetical questions are not always the best that could be selected to test the mastery of the candidates over the subject in its general features and fundamental principles.

They too often turn upon points of detail which mere practice will enable one to work through by routine or a slavish obedience to set rules.

2. The same remark may apply to the grammatical questions. To answer them acceptably requires only a tenacious memory of the text-book. Now, the candidate may be able to quote chapter and verse faithfully, and yet know but little of the laws of language and of the philosophy of grammar. If any one of a more independent and thinking turn should venture to deviate from the beaten or orthodox path, he often runs the risk of damaging himself in the opinion of his judges; whereas this very originality of thought, even when it wanders somewhat from the straight line of logic, should be welcomed and cherished as the very stuff of which can be made the powerful stirrer of thought in other minds.

3. So in geography, the candidate is generally desired to define the boundaries of countries, to give minute catalogues of rivers, mountains, etc., all of which verbal details are very apt to slip out of the memory from want of use, but can be brushed up at a short notice by any conscientious teacher, who, of course, never thinks of going before a class without having previously looked over the day's lesson. Whereas, the great object of a geographical examination should be to ascertain whether the candidate can take a broad and comprehensive view of the science, so as to describe in clear and graphic language the general direction of the principal mountain chains, rivers and sea coasts, and their influence on climate and civilization, etc.

I will say nothing of the omission of what would be the very best test, viz.: requiring him to draw on the black-board from memory the general outline of the principal features of the earth's surface; because, owing to the almost universal neglect in our schools of that most useful acquirement, *Outline Drawing*, very few of us could pass decently through the ordeal; but the dawn of a better day is perceptible.

The preceding strictures apply, I admit, with various degrees of force to the several districts where boards of examiners are located; but uniformity of system is greatly wanted.

There is, however, another and most important point which, so far as my own experience goes, is too generally neglected; I mean questions calculated to test, not merely the knowledge, but the teaching capacity of the candidate, his power of presenting the subject before

the minds of his class in a clear and forcible manner, of eliciting thought, etc. In the common run of examination papers, I miss such questions as the following :

How would you introduce the subject of fractions, and by what steps would you lead your class to the apprehension, if not to the *discovery*, of the principles on which the rules are founded ?

In those important branches of arithmetic, proportion and percentage, what would you lay down as the starting point, the fundamental principle, of which the special rules are only corollaries or natural deductions ?

In grammar, what means would you take to give your pupils, especially the younger portion, distinct ideas of the several parts of speech, of the nature of tense and mood, of the essential and subordinate elements of a sentence ? What is your opinion of the expediency of using many technical arbitrary terms,—of making your classifications logical and consistent ?

In geography, how would you contrive to introduce young children to the fundamental notions of the subject—to the four cardinal points, the meaning and use of a map, etc. With the older learners, what plan would you follow to help them to form a real, living conception of the position of the earth in the universe, of its relation to the various astronomical points and circles—the principal phenomena and laws of climate, the distribution of plants and animals, of the races of men, etc. ?

I am glad to observe that of late more attention is paid to testing the candidates' power of expressing their thoughts in *written* as well as *verbal* answers. The point can hardly be over-estimated; an easy command of correct language being one of the most important instruments of success in a teacher.

Last, but not least, the most important part of a thorough and searching examination should relate to school government.

Most of our young teachers begin their professional career under very difficult and discouraging circumstances, in remote district schools, out of the reach of judicious advisers to whom they could apply in cases of difficulty. These schools are apt to be crowded with scholars of all ages and degrees of proficiency, to each of whom, in defiance of the laws of time, the teacher is expected to devote a large portion of his labor.

Not unfrequently, some of the bigger lads go to the school chiefly to try the new teacher's

mettle, and with the ungenerous and clownish purpose to annoy him and even to put him down. What is the inexperienced teacher to do in the midst of such discordant elements ? In cases of insubordination, he knows of no protection save the "arm of flesh," and (to use a favorite Americanism) to escape being "whipped" himself, he must be able to "whip" his tormentors. I grant that he often succeeds, because generally (though not always), rowdyism or ruffianism is cowardly. But what if he fail ? He must withdraw and make way, not for a *better*, but a *stronger* man. And yet, he knows no other way. In his boyish difficulties, he has been used to resort to physical force in order to vindicate his rights, and if he looks abroad into the outer world, he too often sees that *ultima ratio* appealed to both by individuals and nations.

Observe that I am now alluding to what, I suppose, must ever remain an open question among teachers—whether *bodily* inflictions are fit remedies to heal *mental* disorders. I now refer only to those gross cases of insolence and rebellion not uncommon in country schools, when the question is no longer, what ought the teacher to do to reform the offender, but what can he do to protect himself ? I do not find that this important point ever forms a part of a teacher's examination ; and yet, before a teacher is fit for the lowest office in a school, he ought to have definite notions of the plan he means to follow in order to preserve order, to keep up attention, to discourage idleness and whispering, lateness, irregularity of attendance, truancy, etc. He should be questioned as to what he would do in any of the emergencies that may occur in a mixed school. If he thinks it right to use corporal punishment with the smaller boys, what will he do with the older ones, so that little boys may not have it in their power to taunt him by saying : " You hit me because I am little ; you dare not hit him because he is big " ?

He should be asked what mode he will take to repress pertness or other misdemeanors among the girls without either wounding their womanly self-respect or incurring the suspicion of partiality.

Are not these points of the utmost importance to the successful management of a school, and yet, how seldom are they touched upon in an examination ! A raw youth, provided he can read, parse and spell decently, and is tolerably expert at figures, is allowed to go into a school, there to do others a great deal of harm and ex-

pose himself to much annoyance, because he has only vague ideas, or no ideas at all, of moral government, and means to trust to chance, to a strong fist and a large endowment of combativeness!

Before I conclude, may I say that there is something objectionable in the practice of giving certificates for six, twelve or eighteen months, according to the comparative merit of the candidates. The plain meaning of this seems to be that A, being but poorly qualified, may be allowed to blunder on for only six months, whereas B, who is somewhat better, may have a wider range allowed him. Why not rather adopt the French plan of issuing certificates of the first, second, third order of capacity, classified according to the primary, secondary, grammar, etc., departments?

Also, the requiring teachers of all ages and grades to be congregated together and passed through the same indiscriminating mill of examination, is not a little ludicrous. For instance, at one of your county town examinations, I saw a gentleman who had just been appointed superintendent of the schools there, and a lady on whose intelligent but worn countenance the toils and anxieties of some ten or twelve years' teaching had stamped their mournful impress, sitting meekly in a crowd of young and some very *green-looking* individuals, waiting to be examined!

Would it not be better to make it imperative on all teachers of our common schools, at least those below the grade of superintendents, to be examined at stated periods, the examiners being classed into different categories according to their grade of professional capacity and experience? This would create a healthy spirit of competition among them and a desire to secure a high grade of certificate. It would impress on their minds the fact that, in order to preserve their intellectual vigor and to keep up with the progress of the age, they must continue to be assiduous students. Dr. Arnold beautifully says: "You need not think that your own reading will have no object because you are engaged with young scholars. Every improvement of your own powers and knowledge tells immediately upon them; and, indeed, I hold that a man is fit to teach only so long as he is himself learning daily. If the mind becomes stagnant, it can give no fresh draught to another mind. It is like drinking out of a pool instead of from a spring."

But, in order to effect such and like improve-

ments, the number of examiners must be increased and the whole matter brought under one uniform system. Now, they have far too much to do and are wretchedly compensated. I would venture to propose, though I fear that, by so doing, I shall raise an outcry, that all candidates for examination, whether successful or not, pay the board of examiners a small fee, say half a dollar, to compensate for the additional labor and time which a more thorough examination would require. This trifling tax might also act usefully as a check to keep off individuals who often attend examinations, although they already possess the requisite credentials, or have no definite notion of teaching, merely because they happen to be in the neighborhood, thereby very unnecessarily taking up the examiners' time.

From the Indiana School Journal.

How Shall the Dictionary be Used in the School Room?

The question has been asked, what grade of dictionary would you have your pupils use? Answering first, negatively, I would not use the common school grade. Reason,—Definitions too meagre. Illustration:—Hoe, in this, is defined, *a farmer's tool*. This definition is gravely deficient, being as applicable to a spade, a harrow, a scythe or a rake, &c., as to a hoe. Spade is defined, *an instrument for digging*. This defines a mattock or pick equally as well as it does spade.

Glue is defined as a *tenacious substance*. This applies to wax, fused candles, cement, dough, tar, pitch, molasses, &c.,—and, I suspect, to almost all other substances in the universe, if the term *tenacious* is predicated of the particles of matter in the body as related to each other. This is sufficient to make good my statement, viz., meagre definitions.

Consequences of meagre definitions:—1, They mislead pupils, causing them to rely upon a part, as if it were the whole. 2, They tend to fix an incorrect use of terms. Hence, I would not use the common school grade of dictionaries.

The academic grade is the next higher, and advances a little in fullness of definition. Illustration: Hoe, *a farmer's tool for cutting up weeds*; the limiting terms, for cutting up weeds, narrowing the definition greatly. This, however, gives a definition of use only, omitting entirely shape and constituent elements. Without multiplying examples, it is safe to say this

grade is largely defective in fullness of definition. Additional, it gives no radical words from other languages.

The counting-house grade rises a shade higher in size and cost, and is, inferentially, a shade fuller in definition.

The royal octavo, abridged in form but not in words, published by Lippincott, at a cost of \$3.50, is sufficiently full in definition for most purposes. It would, in most pursuits in life, serve as a life-time dictionary. It is not so full in definition as the royal unabridged, neither does it so carefully and fully translate its Greek and Latin radicals.

From the above, then, the following answers seem deducible: 1, Use no common school grade. 2, When means will justify, try to get royal octavo or royal unabridged. (These would seldom be carried to the school-room.) 3, Modification—Seat-mates may purchase and use in partnership, thus lessening cost. 4, Modification second—If the academic or counting-house is used, let the pupils, when exhaustive definitions are required, use the teacher's unabridged. This lies on every teacher's table? Or better, have the trustees place an unabridged, as a permanent fixture, in every school-room; then let the pupils use it.

This question hastily answered, the subject proper comes next. The books in the hands of your pupils, the question occurs, as in our caption, how shall they use them?

1. Take a definition and discuss it in class, calling for modifications, being careful at first to use words whose objects are familiar to the pupils. Illustration:—Hoe, *an instrument*—. Let class give their opinion of this; then ask if a gun is an instrument? sword? pen? telescope? bellows? &c. Then add, *used by farmers*. Then ask if that narrows the class of objects to which the definition will apply; ask if sword is used by farmers? telescope? &c. Add, *for cutting up weeds*. Same question as above. Then go back and show that each modifier throws out a large class of objects. Finally, that a perfect definition throws out, or excludes, every class but the one defined. This exercise should be continued till the pupils have some idea of what a definition is. In this connection have them define the words *define* and *definition*; you at the same time aiding them in getting the clearest possible conceptions. To this end, you might state briefly that to *define* is to lay down a boundary, including some *things* and excluding others. Then illustrate

by drawing a circle on the board embracing every thing included by a general or generic definition. Narrow the definition, then draw a smaller circle within the larger, at the same time writing the names of some of the things excluded. Make another step in the same manner, continuing until the idea is seized and appropriated.

2. Have the class study the *object* in connection with the definition of the words.

At this point have them divide the definition into (1) *properties*, (2) *uses*. Thus: A hoe is a thin iron or steel plate nearly square in shape, the sides ranging in length usually from four to eight inches, the long side being somewhat sharpened, the side directly opposite having either an eye or a tine for a handle.—*Properties*. It is used by farmers and gardeners for cutting weeds, scraping and loosening the ground.—*Uses*.

3. Have the class define sometimes by properties, sometimes by uses, sometimes by both. Caution: allow no blending; let each be an entirety, and until the habit of classifying is fixed, let the pupil name the head under which he is defining.

4. These definitions should in general be written; this I deem essential to accuracy. Additional, they should generally be written in a blank book and kept for review. This accomplished, your class is ready for another step.

Object-Teaching.

BY CHARLES DICKENS.

It is but a stone's throw from the High Court of Chancery—High, as we say also of venison or pheasant, when it gets in very bad odor—to the London Mechanics' Institute in Southampton Buildings. After a ramble among lawyers in their wigs and gowns, and a good choke in the thick atmosphere of chancery itself, we stepped in at once, one day not long ago, among a multitude of children in pinafores and jackets. There they were, one or two hundred strong, taking their time from a teacher, clapping their hands and singing "Winter is coming," and a great many more songs. They suggested much better ideas of harmony than the argument of our learned brother, whom we had left speaking on the question, whether money bequeathed to be distributed in equal shares to John and Mary Wilson and James Brown—John and Mary being man and wife—was to be divided into two parts or into three.

The children, when we went among them, were just passing from one class into another, and met in the great lecture room to sing together while they were about it. Some filed in and some filed out; some were on the floor, some in the gallery; all seemed to be happy enough, except one urchin at the extreme corner of a gallery. He displayed an open copy-book before him to the public gaze, by way of penance for transgressions in the writing lesson, but he looked by no means hopelessly dejected.

There are three hundred and fifty children in attendance on this school, which is conducted by five teachers. The children here, we were informed, are classed in the first instance according to their ages in three divisions, the first taking in those under eight years; the second, those between eight and eleven; the third, children older than eleven. These form, in fact, three ages of youth. It is found most convenient to teach children classed upon this principle, and to keep the elder and younger boys from mutual action on each other, because it would be impossible to provide for such a school so many teachers as could exercise very minute supervision. In each of these three divisions, the children are subdivided for the purpose of instruction into two classes — the quick and the slow — which receive lessons suited to their respective capacities. It is obvious that, without punishment, five teachers could not preserve discipline among three hundred and fifty boys; and therefore, though it is but seldom used, a cane is kept on the establishment.

The children having clapped and sung together, sang their way out of the great room in file, while others began streaming in. We were invited to an Object-Lesson, and marched off (not venturing to sing our way into a class room), where we took our seat among the pupils, whose age varied between eight years and eleven. The teacher was before us. We were all attention. "Hands down." We did it. "Hands on knees." Beautifully simultaneous. Very good. The lesson began.

"I have something in my pocket," said our teacher, "which I am always glad to have there." We were old enough and worldly enough to know what he meant; but boys aspire to fill their pockets with so many things, that according to their minds, the something in the teacher's pocket might be string, apple, knife, brass button, top, hardbake, stick of firewood for boat, crumbs, squirt, gunpowder, marbles, slate pencil, pea-shooter, brad-awl, or

perhaps small cannon. They attempted no rash guess, therefore, at that stage of the problem. "Boys also," our teacher continued, "like to have it, though when it gets into a boy's pocket, I believe that it is often said to burn a hole there." Instantly twenty outstretched hands indicated an idea demanding utterance in twenty heads. "If you please, sir, I know what it is." "What is it?" "A piece of coal."

You draw your reasoning, my boy, from a part only of the information given to you, founding your views of things on the last words that sounded in your ears. We laughed at you, cheerfully; but when we see the same thing done in the world daily by your elders, we do not always find it a laughing matter.

"This little thing in my pocket," the teacher continued, "has not much power by itself, but when many of the same kind come together, they can do great deeds. A number of them have assembled lately to build handsome monuments to a great man, whose name you all ought to know, who made the penny loaf bigger than it used to be — do you know what great man that was?" Minds were out, answers were ready, but they ran pretty exclusively in favor of Prince Albert and the Duke of Wellington. "I am sure," says the teacher, "you must have heard who made all the loaves larger without altering the price, think again — who was it?" A confident voice hazarded the suggestion that it was "Guy Fawkes," and half-a-dozen voices cried "Guy Fawkes." There are always some to follow the absurdest lead, if it be taken confidently, in the great as in the little world.

"Guy Fawkes! nonsense, do you mean him to be carried about in your heads all through November and December!" More inquiry at length elicited, after a little uncertain hovering about Louis Napoleon, the decisive opinion that the man who made bread was Sir Robert Peel. "If you please, sir," said an argumentative little fellow, "he did not make the penny loaf bigger." "Why not?" "He did not make the loaf: he made the baker make it." The difficulty thus started having been properly gone into and further statement of the riddle having been given, it was at length fairly guessed that the teacher's object upon which he meant to talk with us that day was a Penny.

We ascertained that it was round, that it was hard, that it was brown, that it was heavy — by which we meant as some of us explained, that it was heavier than the same quantity of water — that it was stamped on both sides, and

so forth; also that it was made of copper. Pence being next regarded purely in the light of coppers, the name of the metal, "Copper," was written at the top of a black-board, and a line was drawn, along which we were to place a regiment of qualities. We began easily by asserting copper to be hard; and showed our penetration by discovering that, since a penny would not do for framing as a spy-glass, it must be opaque. Spell opaque? O dear, yes! twenty hands were out; but we were not all so wise as we imagined. No matter; there are folks of bigger size elsewhere who undertake what they are not able to do. O-p-a-k-e ought to be right; but, like not a few of which we could argue they must be right, it happened to be wrong, so what was the use of talking. We heard a little boy in the corner whispering the truth, afraid as yet to utter it too boldly. It was not the only truth that has appeared first in a whisper. Yet as truth is great and shall prevail, it was but fit that we all finally determined upon o-p-a-q-u-e; and so we did; and we all uttered those letters from all corners of the room with the more perfect confidence as they grew, by each repetition, more familiar to our minds.

A young student in a pinafore, eight years old and short for his age, square and solid, who had been sitting on the front row, nearly opposite the teacher, was upon his legs. He had advanced one or two steps on the floor holding out his hand; he had thought of another quality, and waited to catch Mr. Speaker's eye. But our eyes wandered among the outstretched hands, and other lips cried, "It is malleable;" so malleable was written on the board. It was not the word that still lurked in the mind of master Square, who in a solid mood kept his position in advance, ready to put forth his suggestion at the earliest opportunity. What malleable meant, was the question over which we were now called upon to hammer, but we soon beat the answer out among ourselves; and then we spelt the word, and malleability into the bargain. Master Square uplifted his hand the moment we had finished; but there rose other hands again, and the young philosopher, biding his time in sturdy silence, listened through the discussion raised as to whether or not copper might be called odorous. This debate over, Square was again ready—but an eager little fellow cried that copper is tenacious, upon which there was a new quality submitted to our notice, which we must discuss, explain, and of which the name had to be spelt. But mas-

ter Square's idea had not yet been forestalled, and he, like copper, ranked tenacity among his qualities. At length he caught Mr. Chairman's eye, and said with a small voice, "Please, sir, I know a quality," "and what is that?" the teacher asked. Little Squire replied, as he resumed his seat, "It's INORGANIC."

Here was a bombshell of a word thrown among us by this little fellow, but we did not flinch. Inorganic, of course, meant, "got no organs," and we all knew what an organ was, and what a function was, and what were the grand marks of distinction between living and dead matter, and between animal and vegetable life. So we went on, with a little information about mining, and display of copper ore; a talk about pyrites, and such matters. Three quarters of an hour had slipped away.

From the Connecticut Common School Journal.
"The Schoolmaster Abroad."

THIS phrase is often quoted, and in connection with the thoughts in which it was first used, has a rich and impressive meaning. They are the words of Lord Brougham, whose large and generous labors in the cause of education have made him greatly beloved by the English people. His eloquence moved the hearts of the members of Parliament and the nobility, causing them to take larger and truer views of education, prompting them to efforts which greatly elevated the masses of the English people, and giving thereby a true foundation for national prosperity. In a speech on the promotion of Wellington to the Premiership, after the death of Canning, Brougham said:—"Field Marshal, the Duke of Wellington, may take the army, he may take the navy, he may take the great seal, he may take the mitre. I make him a present of them all. Let him come on with his whole force, sword in hand, against the constitution, and the English people will not only beat him back, but laugh at his assaults. In other times the country may have heard with dismay that 'the soldier was abroad.' It will not be so now. Let 'the soldier be abroad' if he will; he can do nothing in this age. There is another personage abroad, a personage less imposing, in the eyes of some, perhaps, insignificant. *The schoolmaster is abroad*; and I trust to him, armed with his primer, against the soldier in full military array."

In a struggle like the one in which our country is engaged, where military generals with

their merits and success are the theme of every true lover of his country, the comparison of the schoolmaster with the greatest of English generals is impressive; especially when we consider the mature judgment of the speaker. It should lead every teacher to a lively sense of his responsibility. His work may appear comparatively insignificant, almost barren of results, confined to narrow limits and little appreciated; yet, could he look forward for years, and see the ratio of increase flowing from his efforts, could he see the happy homes, the true citizen at the ballot-box, the patriotic soldier and the true Christian, *all*, in part at least, the fruits of his toil, would he not exclaim, it is enough; my reward is great!

Had an army of true teachers, but a fraction of the thousands of soldiers now in the field to protect this noble Union of States, been sent, in past years, through the South armed with the true weapons of intellectual and moral culture and warfare, we should not, we have reason to believe, been shocked by this heart-rending rebellion.

Compare the expense of such an army with those now in the field. How cheap their implements of warfare, yet how effective! No mangled bodies, no death struggles, no bleeding hearts mark their path, but joy rings his merry laugh from every hillside, and the pillars of state are made strong and the Union secure. The war is upon us. The Union must be preserved and rebellion forever crushed. We must fight like true men for the right until it prevails.

We rejoice at success and long for the end. Let every man be true at his post; yet let us remember, fellow teacher, that the future is ours. Armies may crush rebellion, yet armies can not make a true Union, armies can not make a stable government, armies cannot fit men to be kings at the ballot-box; this is the work of moral and mental culture. Who has a greater work than the true teacher? On whom rests a greater responsibility? In the hour of battle one of England's bravest naval commanders gave this for the battle cry of his men, "England expects every man to do his duty." It was enough, every man was nerved by it for the conquest, and in response to duty, victory crowned the battle. The great battle for a perfectly enlightened Union has just commenced. It will be long, it must be certain in its results, but they are to be reached by the educator; and may we not hear our war-cry, United States expects every teacher to do his duty! Let us take it,

striving to get full views of duty, to know our work, and then to labor faithfully, day after day, leaving the results to the future and to God, who will not allow a single seed of truth to be lost, or a single noble effort to fail. To garner the fruits growing from the seeds one has sown is pleasant, perhaps joyous, yet too often accompanying the harvest is self-pride or vanity, which destroys all the elevating and purifying influences which should come to the heart. To sow and to feel that the maturing and increase are in the hands of Him who is able and willing to bring the fruit to perfection in its season and who will fulfill his promise, lifts the heart up from the arm of flesh to God and gives to every true and noble worker in this great field a richer reward than present fruit. Oh teacher, be faithful, be true, look up and toil on until death takes thee to thy reward.

Is it Your Opinion?

Query 1st. Is it your opinion, that those teachers who *talk* most about the order and grading of schools are the ones who present the best models? Or is it your opinion that many of them are like my neighbor farmer, who is wonderfully inclined to talk about, *what should be*, and, at the same time, presents the strongest evidences of remissness in the most ordinary operations of the farm?

Query 2d. Is it your opinion, that any male teacher should refuse to enlist in the army for the reason that his services may be needed in our winter schools?

Query 3d. Is it your opinion, that it is gentlemanly or lady-like for any teacher to backbite and underrate the talents of a fellow teacher, because he or she would like the place which the misrepresented occupies for him or herself or friend.

Query 4th. Is it your opinion, that a teacher of any public or academic school has a right to disproportionately teach certain studies to which he has a mental proclivity, to the neglect of others equally important, in which, from his position, he is to give instruction?

Query 5th. Is it your opinion, that it is profitable for a scholar to be instructed almost exclusively in the *classics*, to the neglect of higher and ordinary mathematics, and other studies which constitute an English education?

Query 6th. Is it your opinion, that all that is required to have a good school is to have a teacher, scholars and public money? Or is it

your opinion that parents have something to do in the matter?

Query 7th. Is it your opinion, that the great object of the teacher in performing his work should be to so do it that he can get his money and keep his place? WILLYS.

Opinion 1st. It is our opinion that those who *act* are far more successful in any enterprise than those who *TALK*. We have known some of the finest of theorists utterly fail when endeavoring to practice. It is *action*, unwearied, systematic, quiet action, that does the real work. The "everlasting talkers," whether they are teachers or other people, seldom find time to do their work as they ought. Nevertheless, a teacher that is really skillful in his calling, will be able to give you his system in detail, but he greatly prefers *showing* you how he does it, than *TELLING* you.

Opinion 2d. The support of this benign government, under which our schools have become so prosperous and so efficient, is of infinitely greater importance than any other duty of American citizens. If there are male teachers who are impressed with a sense of duty in regard to enlisting in defence of their country, but are really fearful the winter schools will suffer by their absence, we think their patriotism is of far too low a type for teachers. We would propose that trustees be very cautious about hiring such. Let the names of all such teachers be given, and we will agree to furnish a "substitute" during their absence.

Opinion 3d. We are of the opinion, generally, that *back-biting* is just the worst and meanest kind of *biting* ever practiced by carnivorous animals. The teacher who is guilty of this nefarious practice, should study what the Bible has to say about backbiters. If he or she fail to reform immediately, then such a teacher should be at once discharged. Charity is beautiful anywhere, but never more so than when seen among teachers.

Opinion 4th. It is a misfortune for those who follow, or to those who are taught, that the leader or teacher is prone to hobbies.

The teacher's business is to develop mind, to bring out well-proportioned manhood.

Few teachers are entirely uniform in their development of character. Most of them have some favorite theories or sciences. The true teacher will guard against this rickety style of *education*. For American society and Ameri-

can institutions, much general knowledge is required.

Opinion 5th. Our opinion on this subject has been frequently expressed. No essential branch of education should be neglected. The classics have only a *relative* importance in our system of education. They are by no means the *first* in the system. It may avail very little for us to repeat our earnest conviction on this subject. Our "opinion" is, that for all purposes of mental culture and development, or for real practical worth, at least one half of the time devoted to the classics in our schools and colleges is wantonly squandered.

Opinion 6th. The earnest and cheerful co-operation of parents is utterly indispensable to a good and prosperous school. The *home* is a power behind the church and school house. If the parent will only work in harmony with the faithful teacher, the school house and money, our system of schools will be most nobly efficient. Good school houses, public money and good teachers are alike indispensable.

Opinion 7th. No man or woman is fit for the position of teacher who makes place or money the paramount object. And yet it is perfectly consistent to unite compensation, position and the higher and nobler emotions of soul which move on the true teacher in his work. It is nothing against a teacher to be anxious in regard to pay and position, but the soul, the appreciation of the importance of his work, the desire to be useful, should overshadow this anxiety.—*Exchange.*

THE SCHOOL HOUSE.—It is the duty of teachers, as well as parents and school committees, to see that the circumstances under which children study are such as shall leave a happy impression upon their minds; for whatever is brought under the frequent observation of the young must have its influence upon their susceptible natures for good or evil. Shabby school houses induce slovenly habits. Ill-constructed benches may not only distort the body, but by reflex influence, the mind as well. Conditions like these seldom fail to disgust the learner with his school, and neutralize the best efforts of his teachers. On the other hand, neat, comfortable places for study may help to awaken the associations enchainning the mind and the heart to learning and virtuous instruction with links of gold brightening forever.

CONFESSON of a fault makes half amends.

Educational Intelligence.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to the PUBLISHERS OF THE SCHOOLMASTER Providence.

From the Providence Evening Press, Sept. 8th.
Convention of the R. I. Normal School Association at Bristol.

The members of the R. I. Normal School Association met for the holding of their first Annual Convention, on Thursday morning, in Normal Hall, where they spent half an hour in a social manner previous to the business meeting, which was held at half-past nine o'clock.

This Association embraces all the pupils and graduates of the State Normal School, now numbering upwards of five hundred and fifty—a goodly company of devoted teachers, who are doing a noble work for the education and elevation of our people, through their skilled labors and consecrated talents. Few are aware of the strength of the professional ties that unite these zealous coöperators in a work eminently adapted to engage the affections of generous natures, or of the sincerity of that bond of fellowship which they find in a common attachment to the scene of their early training. The force of this principle of fellowship was most agreeably manifested in every feature of the recent re-union. It was a festival memorable for its sweet amenities, its wise counsels and its free interchange of experience and sentiment. It was a full and enthusiastic gathering, a signally successful undertaking, a day thoroughly and heartily enjoyed.

The Convention was called to order by Joshua Kendall, Chairman of the Association.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year, on nomination of the committee appointed to present candidates:

President—Rev. Daniel Goodwin.

Vice President—John H. Arnold of Portsmouth.

Recording Secretary—Edward Dawley of Bristol.

Corresponding Secretary—John T. Gregory of Pawtucket.

Treasurer—Charles A. Barney of Bristol.

As the result of a free discussion, which was participated in by Rev. Messrs. Goodwin and Boyden, and Messrs. Arnold, Angell, Burlingame and Kendall, it was

Voted, That the future Conventions of this Association be held annually.

A committee on resolutions was appointed, consisting of Messrs. Howard, of Providence; Arnold, of Coventry; Misses Kate S. Stanton, of Charlestown; and Ellen R. Luther, of Bristol. They reported later in the day.

At quarter past eleven o'clock the procession of Alumni was formed under the direction of the Marshal, Edmund A. Angell, Esq., of Providence, and his

assistants, Messrs. Chas. G. Vincent, of Hopkinton, and John K. Hall, of Tower Hill.

The order of the procession was as follows:

Orator and Chaplain of the day; President of the Association; Trustees of the School; invited guests; Alumni in the order of their graduation.

The procession was a long one, numbering some two hundred people. It presented a truly festive appearance as it passed along on its way to the Congregational Church, and gave assurance to the spectator that some proceedings of more than ordinary interest were in progress. The church was filled by a large auditory, and the interest of the services was much enhanced by the fine music furnished by the organist and a full choir.

The exercises were as follows:

Hymn by the choir.

Prayer by Rev. Dr. Shepard.

Hymn by the choir.

Address to the members of the Association by Rev. Daniel Goodwin.

The subject was "*The War as a Teacher*," and most aptly and skillfully did the speaker educe the war's lessons. His address afforded to his hearers a delightful intellectual recreation which it would be impossible to estimate too highly. Through the medium of polished diction and exquisitely beautiful imagery, the orator spread before us the treasured fruits of vigorous and original thought, of laborious and exhaustive research, of learning, culture and experience. The wealth of illustration which was used, and the great variety of testimony which was adduced in support of the main proposition of the discourse, was truly remarkable; and the extensive scope which was taken by the speaker in the discussion of the questions which he considered, showed a mind deeply imbued with the lessons of the hour, and of no ordinary attainments in Philology—a branch of science in which he gave a most instructive lecture. His address was also most appropriate to the time and place. We are happy to be able to present it entire to our readers.

MR. GOODWIN'S ADDRESS.

Members of the R. I. Normal Association, Ladies and Gentlemen:

The first thought on such an hour as this is naturally connected with the *past*.

Meeting, as many of us do to-day, after a separation of years, we cannot marvel if fond *Memory* claim the first flying moments for her own.

I see before me, gathered on this auspicious morning to revive the associations of by-gone days, an eager crowd of those whose faces in former times gladdened the Normal Hall, and have since shed light and joy in other school-rooms far and near.

Pleasant indeed is it, *again*, as of old, to grasp the friendly hand and to hear the friendly voice once so familiar when the song and the laugh went round.

Life is like the precious fabric they weave for royal garments on the looms of Lyons. Sometimes the golden threads sink out of view, only to reach the surface a little farther on, to aid in forming a splendid flower or a gorgeous band.

So in this *school-woof*, our *cloth-of-gold*, now ten years in the weaving, the threads from time to time have disappeared to do their quiet work beneath the surface, but now appear again and all converge to grace our festival and to lend each a charm to this goodly flower in the garden of the soul. How it irks us to remember that some threads, and one among them which should have shone most brilliantly and been our noblest ornament to-day, have snapped asunder, needed, no doubt, to deck some richer and more lasting tissue!

But while the past occupies our earliest attention, the *vigorous present* claims the largest share. We may not stand, Ulysses-like, at the ship's stern, casting lingering looks towards the the Siren Isles, when already fierce Charybdis is raging round the prow. On no previous occasion have we met under such circumstances as environ us to-day. Our accustomed thoughts and aims are thrust aside at the bidding of the mighty giant,—war, and all other sounds are hushed by the rumbling of his wheels.

Not alone in our capacity of *citizens*, but also as *teachers* and *scholars*, and as those interested in the education of the people, are we brought into immediate relation with this absorbing conflict. It has summoned forth, from their school-rooms, many of our craft to battle for the sacred cause of national integrity. As in the wars of ancient Greece, Socrates and Plato, Archytas and Antisthenes, the instructors of the people, were found in arms for their country, so now patriotic teachers swell the armies of the Union. Principals appear as captains. Professors leave their college chairs to marshal regiments. A famous astronomer and popular instructor has abjured the "sweet influences of Pleiades" and "loosed the bands of Orion" to furnish Mars his lacking satellite. The gallant State of Illinois has equipped a regiment of school-masters, with the Principal of its Normal School as colonel. A leading teacher of this State, who, although not a graduate of our school, is still familiar to nearly all of us, as a constant attendant at educational meetings, has already fallen on the battle-field covered with glory. At least one of our own number has yielded up his precious life for this holy cause, and others are now marching on to death or victory. Some of you have come from camp to-day to tell us your last good-byes before your departure.

Not only by the loss of men, but by the failure of money also, has the educational interest suffered. In some States school-funds have been appropriated to military purposes, and in many, teachers' salaries have been reduced to counterbalance the heavy expenditures for soldiers' bounties and kin-

dred objects. So seriously have educational interests been injured by the war that we might almost complain at our hard lot.

But happily the equilibrium, thus disturbed by some incidents of the struggle, is restored by others.

The enlightened mind ever regards the end as more important than the means. Desiring above everything else the education of the people,—the broad and deep development of all the powers of humanity, if only that be attained, we must not be too anxious about the process. The war is not alone a waster of our educational resources, but a contributor to them *likewise*. If it has taken much, it is returning more. If it has drawn many a teacher into its vortex, it is proving *itself* a *mighty teacher*. The task of an educator is to develop the latent talents of a child,—to inform his mind, to cultivate his affections and to correct his errors. So the war has done more in a few months to awaken our energies, to enrich our thoughts, to deepen our feelings and to enlighten our consciences, than years of peace could do. It teaches under the immense pressure of excitement, and, like all good teachers, invests its lessons with such an intensity of interest that the pupil cannot choose but receive them and retain them. It is a stern teacher too. It teaches as the Storm-King teaches the mountains, baring their heads in reverence before his mighty power and wreathing them with lightnings. It teaches as the wild sea teaches the ships that sail upon his bosom, tossing them from billow to billow and threatening to engulf them in his dreadful abysses. It writes its lessons in characters of blood and letters of fire, and its voice is the cannon's roar. But still it teaches, the race advances and the cause of humanity is subserved.

I do not mean to imply that the war, if prolonged, would continue to promote the education of the people. There are in it many elements which tend toward barbarism and which would eventually neutralize all the good it has done. It disturbs all exclusively intellectual pursuits, and is in direct antagonism to the well-being of society. But, as a temporary storm gives fresh life to the earth, so the war has come at a time when it is needed to correct some great abuses, to reconcile discordant elements, and to introduce new thoughts and principles of action.

War has always been a powerful engine in advancing civilization, teaching men great truths more quickly and more forcibly than they otherwise would learn them.

The famous "sick man" of the Orient was aroused from his slumbers by the Russian war, and received so many new ideas from his Western allies, that he is now exhibiting a wonderful degree of enlightened vigor, and may be held to be convalescent.

In the same struggle the gallant Sardinians

learned lessons which they have carried into practice so successfully in Italy, that a whole people seem inspired with new life, and instead of dosing away the hours in "sweet do nothing," are astonishing the world with their display of statesmanship and their energy in the construction of railways and the publishing of newspapers. Even the Chinese, who have passed ages in a crystallized semi-civilization, are forced, by the exigencies of civil war, to seek the aid of American steamers in navigating their rivers and American arms in fighting their battles, thus admitting a wedge which will *split* their whole clumsy fabric of exclusiveness, as surely as there is power in steam and gunpowder.

As teachers of the people, let us, then, show ourselves fit to be instructed, by being apt scholars of the lessons of the hour. Never did men live at a grander time for learning all that war has to teach.

Let me invite you to a hasty survey with me of the lessons of the rebellion, and then to a somewhat closer examination of a *single* topic.

I. On casting our eyes back over the last eighteen months, we observe that by the intense activity attendant on the war, all the faculties of human nature have been developed and educated. Not one which has not been more fully brought into play than ever before. (1.) To begin with the body,—what an impetus has been given to physical education by the influence of the military spirit! Not only have hundreds of thousands been thoroughly drilled to meet the actual requirements of the war and forced to "endure hardships" in camp, on the march and in the field, but hundreds of thousands more have voluntarily applied themselves to the task of fitting for future service. In many places military drill has been introduced into schools as a part of the regular *curriculum*. A gentleman of this State who has had extensive experience in a military institution has prepared a very clever text-book of infantry tactics,* illustrated by Hopkin, for the use of common schools.

Gymnastic exercises have also received a great impulse from the increased importance attached to physical culture. A Boston publisher has just issued a handsome volume on this theme by Dr. Lewis, who gave valuable lessons in his art to the pupils of the Normal School two years ago.

It is evident that the nation has taken a new step in the education of the body, and is setting a higher value on well-developed and hardy frames. Although the war will bequeath us a sad multitude of cripples, we may hope in some degree to compensate for it by, in future, sending forth from our schools and colleges fewer delicate scholars whose rich endowments and acquirements can scarcely be turned to any practical use on account of the frailness of their bodies. We shall not see in our

stores and lighter work-shops so many narrow-cheated, effeminate men. The nation is learning in a bitter school the importance of vigorous physical training, and will not again allow itself to be caught unprepared. In the last resort its only safety is to be found in the strong right arms of its hardy sons. (2.) But the *intellectual* discipline and culture occasioned by the war are even more striking and important than the physical. It cannot but be evident, for example, that the absorbing events of the times have greatly stimulated the reading of newspapers, by eminence the diffusers of general information. A daily journal of New York has reached the surprising circulation of many more than one hundred thousand copies per day, and others have advanced in like proportion. From an eager perusal of war intelligence a person passes naturally to the examination of the remaining columns, and is very probably incited to read other works beside newspapers. The necessity of correspondence, imposed upon soldiers and their families, has also encouraged intellectual discipline. Many who in former times could scarcely do more than write their names are now impelled by an affectionate desire to communicate with their friends to devote themselves to the task of composition.

Homely and imperfect as must be the result of such attempts, they still constitute a step in advance from barbarism to high civilization and are by no means to be overlooked as a part of the education of the people.

How many a poor fellow has felt himself raised in the scale of humanity by his first successful achievement in letter-writing! But, in addition to thus tending towards the elevation of the lower classes, this great convulsion is contributing, in a wonderful degree, to the enlightenment of even the highly cultivated. We have been enabled to study international law and political economy, as *kings* study them, under the pressure of great events concerning which, as the sovereign people, we feel a certain responsibility.

Many who before scarcely ever bestowed a thought on the great principles governing the intercourse of nations, can now converse intelligently on the rights of belligerents and the laws of blockade, on intervention and neutrality. So in respect to political economy the diffusion of intelligence has been wonderfully promoted. We have become concerned in watching the relative values of our exports and imports, the result of the withdrawal of the cotton crop from commerce, the effect of tariffs, and the immense influence of our grain-crops as correcters of exchange and hinderers of intervention. All these topics have taken on a vital interest by becoming the threads on which hangs the safety of the republic. Not a few who never felt any curiosity about this grandest of all sciences, political economy,—the only subject connected with the art of government, as Buckle has observ-

* "The Boy-Soldier,—Infantry Tactics for Schools."

ed, which has yet been raised to a *science*, now study it with enthusiasm. New principles have been made clear by the progress of events. Instead of the "bread-riots," the starvation, and the entire prostration of all business expected to attend the war, we find almost all classes at least partially employed and enjoying a considerable degree of prosperity. Ship-builders, machinists and woolen manufacturers are pressed with work as they never before were. There is no limit to the new ideas which we have gained in respect to diplomacy, social philosophy, and the principles of government. In military information, the attainments of the people, made in the school of this civil war, are so enormous and so patent as scarcely to require to be suggested to you.

The great struggle has also proved an incentive to the study of history. When we behold, occurring around us, events which must be recorded among the most important in the annals of the world, and when we realize that the grand fabric of history is constructing before our very eyes, we cannot but be stimulated to examine more accurately than ever before the chronicles of past times, to compare them with what is now occurring, and to attempt to arrive by generalization at philosophical results. How wonderful a contributor, too, is the war to our knowledge of the geography, the people, the customs and the products of our own land! We pore over maps, both old and new, to learn the position of cities and towns and even insignificant villages made famous by the incidents of the war, the courses of rivers and the situation of mountains, until we are more familiar with the geography of the whole country than we previously were with that of our own States. Indeed, it may well be doubted if all the educational institutions in the land have done as much, in the same time, to raise the intellectual *status* of the whole people and to inform their minds, as this costly but energetic teacher, war, has done during the last two years. In this way it is repaying us for all the vast expenditures it is occasioning.

(3.) One duty of a faithful instructor of youth is to develop and to elevate the affections and the sentiments of his pupils. Nor is the war deficient in this department. As a nation, we were fast being enslaved by a sordid passion for accumulating wealth, to the exclusion of all those nobler emotions of which the human heart is capable. The spirit of trade, most praiseworthy when confined within its appropriate limits, was crowding out patriotism and reverence for government, and benevolence and veneration for the past. A bare utilitarianism was threatening to spread its chilling influence over all the relations of life. "It is worse than death, aye than a thousand deaths," says that eminent English clergyman, the late Mr. Robertson, "when a people has gravitated down into a creed that the 'wealth of nations' consists not in generous hearts,

'Fire in each breast and freedom on each brow.'

in national virtue and primitive simplicity and heroic endurance and preference of duty to life,—not in *men*, but in silk and cotton and something they call 'capital'." Such was, no doubt, the state towards which we, as a nation, were hastening, till the war came to correct us. By arousing the latent noble sentiments in the hearts of the people, it taught us the sordidness of mere selfish gain and the bitterness and the shallowness of our ordinary pursuits. But if it has taught us our littleness, it has taught us our greatness too. It has shown us that we can be great in self-sacrifice, great in energy and great in love for our country. If it has proved that some men's hearts are shallow and small, capable of containing only that love of self which finds its highest delight in personal prosperity, let the country go as it will, it has shown that those of others are deep and large and can entertain the grand sentiment of patriotism. In many a breast the war has enkindled such a noble flame as never burned there before. The chords of human sympathy have been touched by tales of hardship and woe suffered by many of our countrymen. Thousands, who never were of any public service before, have enlisted in works of benevolence. In camp and hospital and sewing-club our charitable feelings are developing. Many an example of self-sacrificing patriotism appeals to every one of us in a voice that cannot be mistaken. But to the individual ear, the war teaches some lessons in gentler tones. Family affection has been deepened and sanctified by the pain of parting and sometimes by the unspeakable joy of meeting after seasons of danger. No mother knew before how much she loved her son, nor any son how he idolized his mother. The teachings of the war to households desolated by its fatal hand and to hearthstones with vacant places never to be filled, have not dimmed the brightness of family affection by transporting its objects to other spheres. But these are lessons not to be dwelt upon in public. We love best to tell them over, in silence, to our hearts, and recite them to no teacher of this world.

(4.) In recounting the beneficent teachings of the war, we must not fail to notice that it is developing in the nation an unwonted *moral strength*. As, by the fiery trials of the Revolution, our fathers learned lessons of endurance and manly independence, so now are we acquiring a new vigor by triumphing over perils and sorrows and counting them as nought if we may but attain the great end of all our efforts, the reestablishment of our government in more than its pristine glory. Virtues which a little time ago were flittingly esteemed, are now most highly valued. We begin to appreciate the worth of well-organized society and of national life, in distinction from that vicious spirit of individualism,—every man for himself,—which was coming to prevail. An acquaintance with the

dreadful condition of society in the regions where guerilla bands are desolating the country is enough to make us forever recognize the blessings of established government. Napoleon said, "want and misery are the best school teachers to make good soldiers," so are anxieties and perils making us better citizens. The war is also, in another respect, promoting moral culture by extending military discipline over such a vast number who never yielded to any control before. Who can doubt that many will be made thereby more submissive to all law and order? With our present difficulties settled, we shall hardly expect to see again parties of flibusters fitting out from our seaports and border-ruffians preying upon defenceless citizens. But, apart from its influence on individual minds, the war is giving us new ideas as a nation. It is educating us into a homogenous whole and giving us a self-consciousness as a national unit. Men do not now ask themselves as they did in those dark days of the "interregnum," twenty months ago, "have we a government?" Especially is the present season of conscription answering the question, if any one's doubt has not been previously dispelled. Out of discordant, and almost childish, because undeveloped, elements existing at the commencement of the war, the exigencies of the time are constructing a proper nation. Learning, as we have seen, a deal more than we knew before about our country, geographically, economically and politically, we are made proportionally aware of our national existence and are schooled in the idea of our being one people. The war has also taught us the importance of depending on ourselves as a nation. What a grand moral idea is this, — to find our national safety not in alliances with other nations, not in dissuading them from attacking us by cries for mercy, — but in the strength of our own armaments, the abundance of our own productions and the loyalty and patriotism of our own people! By stimulating the development of our resources, the war increases our *moral* as well as our *material* strength.

(5.) But above all lessons thus taught, we have learned one which we were well nigh forgetting. Amidst the din of conflicts, the shock of afflictions and the trembling for the future, we cannot but behold more clearly than ever before, the great God of Heaven ruling over all. Many, who never prayed before, now find themselves bent low before the Throne of Grace. When the tempest of war is bursting upon their homes and every earthly hope is melting away beneath their feet, they have none other upon whom to cast themselves but Him who

"Plants his footsteps in the sea,
And rides upon the storm."

II. In selecting, from among the teachings of the war, a single topic for a somewhat detailed examination, I have attempted to discover one which will, as far as possible, involve and illustrate all

the rest. That, which seems to me more nearly than any other to answer this requirement, is *the influence of our great intestine convulsion on common language*. Nor does this appear an insignificant theme when we consider to how marvellous an extent language is the reflection of thoughts and things, as they exist at any given time. Whatever change occurs in outward objects, in ideas and sentiments, it develops a corresponding change in ordinary language, their counterpart and unfading photograph. Hence philologists infer the history of a race from the forms of its words, just as clever numismatologists construct elaborate chronologies from a few rusty coins. By comparing, for instance, the present language of the Anglo-Saxon race with the learned tongue of India, so great a degree of similarity is discovered as to warrant the inference, that in early times the two races constituted one people. In analysing our language still farther, we find impressed upon it other great facts of history. A very few old words, of Latin origin, mostly of a military or ecclesiastical character, as *chester* (*castra*) and *cloister* (*claustra*) serve to record the early invasion of Britain by Julius Cæsar and the subsequent introduction of Christianity. The almost entire absence of Celtic words proves that the ancient Britons were nearly exterminated and their language supplanted by that of the hordes of Saxons and Angles who overran the island in the fifth and the following centuries. The very large proportion of words of French origin illustrates the well-known fact of the Norman conquest and supremacy, while the Anglo-Saxon words, far more numerous and important, prove, if proof were needed, that the conquered race continued to form the vigorous bulk of the people. Besides these marked *general* correspondences between the history of England and the English language, we find isolated words which suggest the events of the times when they had their rise. "Crusader" recalls the age of the lion-hearted Richard, "Lollard" brings up the picture of Wickliffe's time, "Puritan" stands as the representative of the controversies in the Elizabethan period, "Roundhead" and "Cavalier" suggest the Civil War, and "Non-conformist" the occurrences of the Restoration.

With such events as are now occurring among us, stirring society from its very depths, awakening long dormant energies and kindling fierce animosities, strange indeed would it be, if no influence were exerted upon our language. The most cursory observation would convince us that words of which we scarcely knew the meaning before the breaking out of the rebellion, have since come into most familiar use. But in order to judge of the extent of this influence we must make a more systematic examination. Philologists teach us that the great changes which are constantly, but, in the main, *slowly* going on in every spoken language consist of the coining of new words, of the addi-

tion of new meanings or shades of meaning to old words, of the familiarizing of previously existing uncommon words, and of the obsolescence of those long in use. Of these processes it may be remarked that the frequent recurrence of those hitherto unfamiliar and the imposition of new shades of meaning on old words are much more rapid and numerous than the introduction of entirely new ones or the rejection of old ones. This power of assimilating from other tongues, of coining, of modifying, and of throwing off words and phrases, is what constitute a living language. A dead language, like the Latin, on the contrary, has no such faculty of transformation. It is like a winter bouquet of beautiful *immortelles*, ever brilliant and chaste and unfading, but budding no more, nor blooming, nor putting forth green leaves. So the dead language bourgeons with no new word,—it lets none bud and bloom into new and fuller meanings,—nor does it allow any to fade and drop off like dying leaves. But a *living* tongue is always changing, eliminating, assimilating, modifying, like a living plant in the mould, which drops some leaves because it is producing better ones and buds and blooms and bears rich fruitage. In ordinary times, however, these transformations go on so slowly that we hardly heed them at the time, and, naturally enough, judge language to be fixed, unless we trace its history from age to age. But when we do so, the changes brought to light are often surprising. One of our brave soldiers, confined in a southern prison and writhing under the insult of being called a "caitiff," would derive but little comfort from the information that five hundred years ago it was the only form for "captive," and yet so it was. Nor would a fine lady be satisfied to be termed a "beldam" because that word was originally "belle dame." An American in England would be somewhat surprised to be invited to attend a Bethel-church in Birmingham or any other inland town, and yet the employment there of this word for any "house of God" is more strictly in accordance with its original use than is our limitation of it to a church for sailors. We laugh at a Lancashireman who talks of "starving" with *cold*, until we learn that the word is derived from the old German "sterben," to die from any cause, *cold* or otherwise.

The principal advantage which we now enjoy for the study of the life of language arises from the rapidity with which changes go on before our eyes, at a time of such immense activity. The present bears about the same relation to ordinary times that the pretty trick of the East Indian juggler does to actual vegetation. Just as in that bit of "prestidigitation" the seed is planted and germinates and attains its growth as a plant, and in that form blossoms and bears fruit, all in the course of a few minutes, so now we see words coming into use and growing familiar and adopting new shades of meaning, in the course of a few months. Never

before have we had such an opportunity to study the philosophy of the life of language.

(1.) Let us glance, in the first place, at the ~~dead~~ of words which have taken new shades of meaning through the influence of great public events. One which suggests itself first and is, perhaps, the most remarkable of all, is "contraband." From its general signification of "any article, whose importation or exportation is prohibited by law," it has become limited to "a fugitive slave within our military lines," and is used most familiarly in that sense. This usage, as you remember, originated with Gen. Butler, at Fortress Monroe, who answered a certain rebel, claiming two or three runaway slaves, that they were "contraband of war." The convenience of the term, in the absence of any other one word expressing the idea, was so obvious that it immediately came into general use, and "contraband," in that sense, bids fair to become a permanent part of the language.

"Secede" and "secession" have also acquired a new special meaning to which they will long continue to be limited. To make this fact apparent, it will only be necessary to compare them, suggesting *treason* as they do, with their cognate, "seceder," which, not having been used in the same connection, reminds us rather of religious controversy in Scotland.

"Confederate" and "confederacy" have also taken on an unenviable special meaning, which will forever forbid their standing on our lips for any good thing. As a counterpart to them, "federals," as designating loyal troops, has been changed from its previous use, as an adjective only, into a noun of limited signification.

But while all these words illustrate the general tendency of language to become more specific, it is curious to note that the word "yankee," as now used, is an instance of the opposite inclination. Before the war it was always limited to the inhabitants of New England, but now, in the mouths of the rebels, it designates any one belonging to the country north of Maryland. Nor is it unlikely that it will henceforth have this signification when we remember that it acquired its present popularity from being used as a term of reproach by the English. "Hessians" and "Northern vandals" seem to be current in the South, as complimentary designations of the federal soldiery, but will very probably die with the war. The special use of the word "situation" to express the present condition of military operations originated, I believe, with the editor of the *New York Herald*, and has, from its convenience, been extensively adopted by other journalists. This signification seems to be based on an elegant distinction between "situation" and "state," the one designating an accidental and temporary condition, the other, one habitual and permanent.

"Censor" and "censorship," those foes of free news, have an unaccustomed and special signifi-

tion, although very similar to that they bore in England previous to the reign of William and Mary, when the censorship of the press was removed. "Picket" seems to have been, in some degree, withdrawn from its original signification of a "considerable detachment, forming a chain of outposts," and substituted for "sentry," now hardly used in our armies. "Demoralize" and "demoralization" are generally applied, in a manner not warranted by our dictionaries, to a state of discouragement and disorder among troops. This usage had, however, been rendered somewhat familiar by the late European campaigns and probably originated with the French. "Coerce" and "coercion" have almost lost their wide meaning in view of the manner in which they were specifically employed, especially at the beginning of the rebellion.

In addition to such words as these, whose new shades of meaning are easily traceable, there may be named a large number of which the added force is rather to be felt than expressed. On whose ear does "*Union*" new strike as coldly as it did before its being imperiled? To whom has not "*victory*" a gladder sound than ever before, and "*defeat*" a gloomier? Who can estimate the fullness of joyful meaning that will appertain, after all these sad conflicts are over, to "*Peace*"? To "*advance*" and "*retreat*," "*enemy*," "*rebel*," "*volunteer*," "*intervention*," "*belligerent*," "*loyalty*," and if we accept the practical interpretation of our British friends, to "*neutrality*," a like new power has been given. Words expressing noble sentiments, like "*courage*," "*valor*," "*patriotism*," words betokening sorrow and affliction, and terms used to convey aspersions and blame, have all become, through the incidents of the war, more familiar to the popular ear and suggestive of more special signification. It is not necessary to do more than allude to the vastly increased interest attaching to hundreds of proper names from their connection with the absorbing events of the times. If words are to be estimated, not by their bare sound upon the ear, but by the fullness of association and feeling aroused whenever they are heard, our language has been immensely enriched by this means. A proper name with which we have no association is bare and uninteresting, a mere skeleton without life or beauty. But when it suggests famous events, brave deeds and heroic self-sacrifice, it becomes clothed upon with untold interest like a living human form. What a flood of meaning comes with "*Waterloo*" or "*Bunker's Hill*," "*Wellington*" or "*Washington*"! Shall we ever hear "*Bull-Run*" without a shudder, or "*Fort Donelson*" and "*Roanoke*" without a thrill of joy, or "*Beauregard*" and "*Twiggs*" without detestation, or "*Burnside*," brave, noble "*Burnside*," without a proud exultation?

(2.) By far the largest class of words influenced by the war is made up of those previously uncom-

mon, although well-authorized ones which, without any especial change of signification, have been introduced into familiar use. Most of these are, it is true, more or less intimately connected with military matters, but have been adopted to a surprising extent into general language. Editors introduce them into their leaders even when they are unconnected with war. Preachers borrow them to add vividness to their thoughts. How uncommon was it, two years ago, to hear such terms as "*blockade*," "*gun-boat*," "*base-of-operations*," "*privateer*," "*strategy*," "*furlough*," "*sharp-shooter*," "*ambulance*," "*sutler*," "*scout*," "*pontoon*," "*guerilla*," "*cartel*," or "*bounty*," now as familiar as the most ordinary household words! Then there is that large class of military titles from "*corporal*" to "*major-general*" and of names of military bodies from "*squad*" to "*corps d'armée*," which, though familiar enough in a general way, were never before so commonly and so accurately used. Words connected with fortification, as, "*case-mate*," "*barbette*," "*abattis*," "*glacis*," "*parapet*," "*bastion*" and "*bomb-proof*"; and with ordnance, as "*caisson*," "*limber*," "*schrappnel*," "*howitzer*," "*columbiad*" and "*Dahlgren*," have also entered most largely into the popular language. Then we have become more familiar with terms connected with the naval service, as "*commodore*" and "*admiral*," a title just introduced into our service, and with names of military equipments, as "*haversack*," "*knapsack*," "*canteen*" and "*carbine*." To these might be added a vast number of a miscellaneous character which, if I were to weary you with naming them, would reach several hundreds, such as "*iron-clad*," "*vivandière*," "*armistice*," "*zouave*," "*cavalry*," "*ambuscade*," "*skirmisher*," "*vidette*," "*bivouac*," "*canton*," "*partizan-ranger*," together with those delectable terms, "*enroll*," "*draft*" and "*conscription*." Numerous as this class of words would prove, if carefully collected, their mere number represents but a trifling part of their importance. It is their constant recurrence in popular literature and common conversation that makes them of consequence. A single telegraphic column of the *Providence Journal* contained on a certain day nearly seven hundred words exclusive of those, such as prepositions and articles, which make no complete sense by themselves. Of this number two hundred and fifty were connected exclusively with military operations and were such as were not found at all in a corresponding column of a *Journal* issued two years ago; and four hundred and fifty, including proper names of officers and localities, derived all their fullness of significance from a knowledge of the events which have occurred since the breaking out of the rebellion.

(3.) There is only left to be examined that class of words which may be styled new, owing their introduction to current events. Nor must we forget

in prosecuting this inquiry, that new words are often more vigorous than elegant. They generally have their origin among the lowest of the people, and only work their way by slow degrees into the more cultivated usage of the upper circles, just as the sturdy oak is cunningly fashioned in the depths of the earth ere it bursts forth into the bright upper air and only stands there at all by virtue of its roots firmly braced in the ground. Polite coinage like air-plants are generally short-lived. Many of Dr. Johnson's classical inventions have long since disappeared, while words like "mob," against which all the wits of Queen Anne's time protested, have gained a permanent foothold. The first coinages of the rebellion were, I believe, "secessionist" and "secessionism." It is a remarkable example of the inclination to abbreviate, that "secessionist" so soon lost its latter half in popular usage, and even sometimes in the mouths of cultivated persons. Short words must stand for common things, and "secessionist" was too long after traitors became so numerous. There is a large class of *compounds*, which have come into use since the beginning of the war, not found in our dictionaries, such as "Quaker-gun," "mortar-fleet," "ram-fleet," "stone-blockade," "balloon-reconnoissance," "alien-enemy," "masked-battery" and "shot-proof."

A famous naval conflict has changed two proper names into common nouns, and we hear of a dozen new "Monitors" and another "Merrimac." So we speak of the recurrence of a "Trent-affair" as a thing to be deprecated. The rebels have coined "Lincolnite" to designate a loyal soldier, and we have returned the compliment by denominating the "sacred-soil" "Secessia." Our soldiers go forth into the heat of the "sunny south" defended by "Havelocks," a word borrowed from the British army, and by "Aspinwalls," a term first applied in our own. The rebels designate their traitorous banner the "stars and bars," in contradistinction to our glorious "stars and stripes," and politely commend us to the attention of "yellow-jack" who, they have hoped, would offer our troops too oppressive hospitality at New Orleans, but hitherto, happily, have hoped in vain. On the border we hear of "jayhawkers," and in Egypt of "butternuts," or southern sympathizers. The new financial arrangements made necessary by the war, have presented us with the terms "green-back" and "postal-currency." No doubt this list might be much increased by more extensive observation, but examples enough have been given to show that additions are actually making to the vocabulary of our language. It is not probable that all will become permanent members of the tongue, but some are just as likely to remain as thousands which have sprung from similar sources.

From this slight sketch of the influence of present events on our vocabulary, a sketch which, after all, only suggests rather than comprehends the

transformations and the additions which have been made, it is evident that considerable changes have already occurred. Indeed it is doubtful whether an intelligent person just awaking from a Rip Van Winkle sleep, into which he had sunk before the war, would, even on being informed of the intervening events, comprehend without difficulty much of the ordinary language of the day. What clear thought would be conveyed to the mind of such an individual, if, in the telegraphic column of his morning paper, he were to read, as we are accustomed often to do, that "an *intelligent contraband* had brought the information that the *confederates* were *skedaddling*, leaving *quaker-guns* to deceive the *federals*; that *yellow-jack* was making its appearance on the *blockading-squadron*, and that the *ram-fleet* had sunk a rebel *Merrimac*; that *green-backs* were eagerly taken by the *secessh*, and the *stone-blockade* had proved a failure; and that, although a *balloon-reconnoissance* had been made, information in respect of the *situation* was excluded by the *censor*?"

Thus is the fierce teacher, war, revealing to us the mysteries of the life and the growth of language. By its influence the observant scholar is able to perceive, almost at a glance, principles which otherwise would have to be gained by the patient study of the changes of many years. Nor is his reward limited to mere philosophical results; but he sees reflected in the language of the people the other great elements of their education now advancing at the hands of the irresistible instructor. He observes in the very words they use evidence of an increased attention to physical development, of more extended information and keener comprehension, of warmer affections and more generous sentiments, of a grander moral discipline, and of an increased degree of reverence for the sovereign Ruler of the Universe. To him the war no longer appears an unmitigated evil, surcharged with horrors though it be. He sees how, through these fiery trials, the nation is becoming stronger, wiser, nobler, happier, more independent, more courageous and more devout. Therefore go on, thou mighty teacher, and be thou prosperous in thy work! Cease not till every lesson thou canst teach is learned, and we are fitted to enjoy and appreciate the glad light of peace and unity, which dawns afar beyond thy bloody fields and beyond thy scenes of woe!

To this association, formed as it is in fighting times, let me say that I hope it will be a *fighting society*, invading with "no lines of retreat" the domain of ignorance and error, and emancipating all that are "held to service" there. Let us not repine at the hardships entailed upon us by the war, not even if all our schools are suspended and teachers and scholars are absorbed in the one great work. It is a mark of greatness to *bend* as well as to *create*. Grand events are now occurring, and if we are in earnest, we may *bend* them, unpromising

as they may seem, into means of education more forcible than those we have lost. We must not expect to realize all the lessons of our sublime instructor now, while we are in the midst of them, any more than we can comprehend all the proportions of a noble church while we are still beneath its vaulted roof and among its clustered columns. But when, in years to come, those who survive look back on these stirring times, they will perceive more fully all the finished purposes and the precious lessons of the war, even as an observer from some commanding hill appreciates the faultless symmetry and the solemn majesty of a grand cathedral.

After the benediction the procession was re formed and marched to the Town Hall, where a collation was partaken of by about 175 Alumni of the school.

The Divine blessing was then invoked by the Rev. D. L. B. Goodwin, of Providence.

The hall was completely filled with guests, and with its well laden tables and its decorations presented a most inviting appearance. Mr. Joshua Kendall presided at the festive board, and his preëminent geniality of manner, his aptly chosen words of welcome, and his felicitous remarks in introduction of the several speakers, heightened the enjoyment both of the banquet and of the feast of reason which followed it, and brought the feelings of all present into true harmony with the spirit of the occasion. The greatest credit is due to those having charge of the celebration for the admirable manner in which all the arrangements for the feast were made.

After the bountiful and elegant collation had been disposed of to the satisfaction of the guests, the President called to order, and introduced as the first speaker the Rev. John Boyden, of Woonsocket. He expressed his thankfulness for the abundant hospitalities of which he had just partaken, and for the richer and more lasting entertainment to which he had listened in the morning. The orator had seemed to him like a skillful horticulturist winding his way through some paradise of groves and gardens, and describing minutely the qualities and uses of every tree and flower. He had given excellent suggestions in regard to the beneficent results of the present war. Let teachers educate the people up to the reception of those sublime and substantial principles, the want of which had brought us at this time to the very verge of destruction. Let them go on in the good work educating society from the lowest strata to the highest, raising each into a higher atmosphere. Bye-and-bye the work will be accomplished and we shall be thankful that we have lived in such a day. May God give strength and wisdom, and all needed blessings to you and your pupils both now and evermore.

Mr. J. J. Ladd then responded to a call of the President in some very piquant and entertaining remarks.

The President then gave as a sentiment:

The Memory of our late respected Principal, Dana

P. Colburn—Though we mourn his untimely death, let us imitate his bright example.

This was responded to in a most touching and eloquent manner by the Rev. Daniel Goodwin.

Addresses were also made by Messrs. B. F. Clarke, of Brown University, Thomas W. Bicknell, of the Worcester High School, and others.

RESOLUTIONS.

Mr. E. H. Howard, in behalf of the Committee on Resolutions reported the following, which were unanimously adopted:

WHEREAS, a kind Providence has seen fit to remove from our midst Dana P. Colburn, therefore

Resolved, That we deeply lament his loss as a faithful educator and friend; that we miss his words of counsel and encouragement; and that we testify our sincere respect and admiration for him in every relation of life.

Resolved, That we dedicate ourselves anew to the work which we began under his charge, when we remember that the education of the youth is the only safeguard of our liberties, and, inspired by his example, we as teachers offer our labor and our lives to establish and preserve those cherished institutions which shall ever be the boast of our land.

In the evening the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That this Association tender its sincere thanks to the Rev. Daniel Goodwin, the orator of the day, for his very eloquent and appropriate address.

Resolved, That we acknowledge with deep gratitude the kind liberality of the Trustees of the Congregational Church for the use of their beautiful edifice; of the Town Council for the use of the Town Hall; and of the citizens of Bristol for their generous hospitality, which we have so bountifully enjoyed on this occasion.

Hon. Henry Barnard and other gentlemen of note in the educational world were present. Many teachers connected with the school when it was located at Providence also attended, and a goodly number of members who had lately volunteered came from Camp Bliss to say good bye to their comrades before starting for the war. Patriotic music was furnished by a well-trained choir.

At three o'clock P. M. many were obliged to leave in order to take the returning train, but the festivities were not suspended on that account, but were brought to a close by a social gathering, at the Town Hall, in the evening.

The re-union was preëminently a pleasant and successful one, and the large attendance was a remarkable exhibition of the attachment of our teachers to the institution where so many of them received their early professional training.

"A GLANCE AT SOUTH AMERICA, No. 3," was received too late to appear in this number. We shall insert it in our next.

From the Providence Daily Journal, Sept. 3d.
Commencement.

It is an interesting fact that the prosperity of our chief New England colleges is not much affected by the war. We believe that the prospect is that they will have about as large Freshmen classes this year as usual. And this is not because the colleges are not deeply interested in the war or thoroughly patriotic, but just because professors and students are enthusiastic and efficient in sustaining the government. The people are seeing, as they never have seen before, that the colleges are the very nurseries of patriotism, that they furnish the mental and what we may call, not using the word in the religious sense, the spiritual training, which fits young men to do and dare and suffer and die for their country. Never was the sympathy between colleges and people so close. Never did the public so feel that the stuff of which heroes are made is admirably moulded and shaped in the highest schools of study. Some of the most efficient officers in the service are men whose names we used to read in the roll of College Faculties. And many of the most heroic young men, who have sealed their devotion to their country with their blood, were fresh from the halls of learning, their academic laurels having scarcely faded on their brows. By their patience, their endurance, their docility, their superior intelligence, their aptness to learn and to teach, and by their heroic courage, they have vindicated the cause of American colleges, and showed to the nation that good soldiers, citizens, patriots, are the fruits of our academic training.

Therefore it is that even in these exciting times of war our wonted literary festival is as welcome to us as ever. It does not come to repress our martial enthusiasm, but rather to kindle in us an intenser flame of devotion to our country. A large number of the students who gather at the anniversary to-day, either to complete their curriculum or to begin the labors of a new term, have just returned from an arduous campaign near Washington, and wear on their cheeks the dark coloring of the fervid Virginian sun, and in their callous hands the marks of severest toil. One of their comrades, alas! who went forth with them to serve his country, has fallen a victim to disease, contracted during his absence. Others, still, are foregoing the pleasure of pursuing their studies in the joyous companionship of their classmates, and are now doing soldiers' duty on the field of action. Some of the members of the graduating class have enlisted for the war, and will go from the commencement exercises to the camp. Many of the alumni of the college are filling posts of honor and responsibility in the army and the navy, and their hearts turn lovingly back to-day to their Alma Mater.

Well may we, then, in these days of war, go up

to our literary festival and rejoice in the prosperity of our University, whose sons are doing so much for their country, as well in the field as in the various peaceful professions and avocations of life. She is even now adding to her means of usefulness by erecting a beautiful and commodious Chemical Laboratory, which is nearly completed. With her corps of able and experienced teachers she is drawing to her halls, as she ought, even in the midst of excitements, a large number of ingenuous youth, whom she is preparing for all the duties of good citizens. Never before were those duties so sacred. Never before did they require so high a degree of intelligence and culture. The men who are to be called to lead and shape public opinion in the years that lie before us, should have their minds thoroughly furnished for the great work devolving on them. Brown University, we are proud to say, is doing its part towards preparing them for the responsibilities which will rest on them. All success to her in her noble work! With fervent desire for her continued prosperity, her sons gather around her altars to-day and bless her for what she has done for them, for the country and for the world.

THE PHI BETA KAPPA SOCIETY.

The annual business meeting of the Phi Beta Kappa Society was held in Manning Hall yesterday morning. Hon. S. G. Arnold, Vice President, presided.

The following gentlemen were unanimously elected officers for the ensuing year:

President—Hon. Samuel G. Arnold.

Vice President—Prof. J. L. Lincoln.

Recording Secretary—Prof. R. P. Dunn.

Treasurer—Merrick Lyon.

His Excellency William Sprague and Major General Ambrose E. Burnside, who were nominated last year, were elected honorary members. Charles E. Flanders, D. D., of Concord, N. H., of the class of 1839, Samuel W. Bridgman of New York city, of the class of 1832, William Goddard of Providence, of the class of 1846, and Marshall Woods, M. D., of Providence, of the class of 1846, were proposed and elected honorary members. Rev. William Lamson, D. D., of Brookline, Mass., and Rev. E. M. P. Welles of Boston, Mass., were proposed for membership, but not being graduates of Brown, the election was deferred one year, in accordance with the rule.

After the close of the business meeting, the procession was formed in front of Manning Hall, and then moved to the First Baptist Meeting House. Prayer was offered by Rev. Prof. Fisher, of Yale College.

The oration was delivered by the Rev. Thayer Thayer, D. D., of Newport. It was a profound and eloquent discussion of the controlling theme of this hour—THE STATE. Its origin, its substance, and functions, its forms, its changes, and the sources of its strength and permanence, were

thoroughly and comprehensively analysed, and presented with great richness of illustration and keenness of sarcasm, and with that nervous energy of style and intense earnestness of manner, which are characteristic of the speaker, and were demanded by the nature of his subject.

The following is an outline of the discourse :

In itself the State is essential to the completeness of letters, and to the welfare of human interests. God is now educating us up to the full understanding and appreciation of it. The present moment in our history is a vindication of social unity. The State has a noble life, and men live out from it. This is a time to be in sympathy with the noblest minds in every age in the conception of a State. In respect of its origin, the State is divinely authorized by the revealed, moral and natural law of God. Society crystallizes into government. There is here, indeed, some scope for the exercise of human will, but men come into being under this social condition. In respect of its substance, the State is summarily, government, legislative, judicial and executive. Towards God its chief function is to be the chief illustration to men of the divine State, through the presence in it of intelligent will and its inculcation of accountability to administered law. Toward men, its functions are, restraint, protection, and the development of the individual. In respect of form it admits the utmost variety consistent with integrity of origin, substance and function; in this respect, it is like nature, art, the church, and man himself. This constitutes its greatness. Its form may be changed—1st. By imperceptible processes, as in nature. This is the highest mode, but the most rare. 2d. By constitutional changes, where the acting government conducts its own modifications. Illustrations of this exist, though they are not common. 3d. By the last exhaustive mode of revolution, where men avail themselves of the final prerogative in moral being, and accepting the alternative of struggle, with more or less violence, change the form of government to meet the exigencies of society. Men may abuse the right of revolution, but they nevertheless have the right. Yet this is no arbitrary holding in abeyance of obligation, but an appeal from the infraction of obligation to the majesty of law. Besides these there are no other modes.

Secession is monstrous self-assertion. By it men originate their duty to-day, continue it by perpetually recurring consent, and renounce it at will. This is denial of *all* government—an abyss of sophism, heresy and immorality. The actual State with us is democratic; but it is shaped into form by a process as rigid and sovereign as anything in nature. The State is a great personality, standing up and challenging recognition from the first—exercising at home and abroad every characteristic of complete national life. This present moment in our history is the consciousness and instinct

of that life roused into activity. This form of the State is now subjected among us to perilous trial. Its defects we acknowledge before God, but deny them to be so grievous in comparison with other existing forms. A choice between sinners is the utmost that can be affirmed. There are other national sinners—France, Austria, England especially. Alison only proves evil in everything human, while Grote vindicates ancient Athens.

The actual results of the democratic State during nearly a century are the well-being of the masses, the large provisions for education, the ends of justice, the quiet of industry, the voluntary support of Christianity, a fair proportion of worthy characters; nor is there anything in our present exigency which might not occur under any form of the State.

Ambitious men are not peculiar to democracy. Slavery might exist anywhere. Local independence and the falling off of parts of the country are not the dangers of *democratic* States alone. Great Britain was long in establishing her unity; so, too, was France. Switzerland has had her war of the Sonderbund; and Spain her struggles. Germany as yet can only "*sing ein Deutschland*." Italy is at this moment struggling for unity. We are simply at the point where the elements are either to settle into compactness or to disintegrate more entirely. The question of the future has not terrors for the *democratic* State alone. We fear, as becomes those who believe in the scope of the human will and in God's moral government, but we hope as those who believe in the vindication of great truths and in God's bestowing blessing through suffering. There is no advantage in change of the form of government. Besides, it would be difficult to find a king to suit us.

The question of a higher class deserves more attention from us since *every* State *must* have an aristocracy. But what shall it be? Not one of *family*—for pedigree is very much mixed in *England*, and the confusion here is hopeless. Not one of wealth—save as it represents talent and is associated with merit and manners.

But a higher class formed by education is indeed what the idea of the State demands. We need something to preside by right of the strongest, something to which men will pay reverence. The people will acknowledge such leading; they have done so from Pericles downward. God formed men to look up. *Besides* none can be kept out of their true place. No flowers waste their sweetness; village Hampdens always find enough to do; *real* Miltons are never "mute" nor "inglorious"; those among us who declaim about Cromwell are "guiltless" of fighting. But if a *real* Cromwell be among us doubtless he will do his work, and rooms at the White House will be ready for him, if that be his mission. We need a higher class. God must give men of genius; and yet society cannot live by such men. We must prepare the soil of

average talent for even master minds to spring from. Master minds shoot not up from uncultivated depths. The people have fully vindicated general education. The want of a worthy climax must be met by improvement of our systems of higher education to produce disciplined and well-instructed thinkers, accomplished statesmen, and thoroughly trained professional men. The State is best strengthened by its own efforts to preserve its own integrity.

Our love of country is best increased by our sacrifices for it. Amid the evils of this struggle many possible good effects may come. Habits of subordination may be formed even in the camp, and with the magnifying of law may also arrive peculiar divine blessings, so that in after ages when men tell of the great secession, they shall also speak of the great awakening that followed its rebuke in history. But at all events, the State with us is democratic, and we must be true to it. With other nations democracy is only a question of time. Here there is no alternative. We must face the ruin of a dismembered State, or contemplate the completeness of its structure. Whatever endangers the ship of State must be thrown overboard. This great doctrine of the State we must maintain—it is dear to Almighty God, it is had in charge by the ages, magnified by the Cross of Christ, and vindicated by eternal justice.

THE LITERARY SOCIETIES.

The procession was formed at three o'clock. It moved to Rev. Dr. Hall's church. Prayer was offered by Rev. J. Henry Gilmore, of Fisherville, N. H. The oration was delivered by Rev. James Ormsbee Murray, of Cambridgeport, Mass. The subject was *Nationality and Literature in their Mutual Relations*. And most scholarly and fitting was the discussion of this scholarly theme. The speaker showed the fruits of careful and extended study and of mature and fruitful thought. He treated his subject with great thoroughness, and fortified his position by illustrations drawn from a wide range of literary reading. His style was exceedingly graceful and yet forcible and pointed and manly.

The following is an outline of the oration:

After some introductory remarks on the true idea of nationality, literature was treated as a simple expression or reflection of the nationality. Though in one sense literature is unbounded by territorial lines, in another it is national in its characteristics. National temperament, national tastes, national habits of thought, are elements which in the genesis of a literature, must exert determinate influences. This is the more obvious relation of nationality to literature.

Nationality, further, communicates vigorous impulses toward the formation of literature. National honor is an incentive to men of letters as well as to generals or admirals; to the pen as well

as to the sword. The early German and Spanish histories furnish strong contrasts; the one nation having no true nationality in the earlier period of her history, and no contemporary literature: the other having an intense nationality, and, in certain departments, a well developed literature.

Nationality, however, *limits* as well as *quickens*. National tastes, inborn, peculiar and dominant, are such as to preclude certain styles of composition. Or aptitudes are wanting, which are essential to certain form of literary composition. Rome has no Plato. Germany no Addison or Montaigne. Spanish poetry has no *elyg*.

Nationality modifies, too, as well as limits. The composition of a nationality affects its literature. The generic, universal character of English literature is attributable to the combination of races in the structure of English nationality—each fertile in good mental qualities. The diseases of nationality are equally sure to appear in letters. The national mind of England during the Restoration was diseased, through and through, with well-known vicious tendencies, which creep out distinctly in the literature of the period. So, when the disease is æsthetic rather than ethical, as is the sensational spirit in America, the same holds good. Our literature is already beginning to show it—notwithstanding vigorous resistance by the power of scholarship among us.

While nationality is thus sure to infuse itself into letters, it is equally true that literature affects the nationality. It intensifies the national spirit. There is more connection between literary influences and the masses than at first appears. Burns, with his songs, has intensified the national spirit of Scotland far more than Bruce with his traditions. Germany is ten fold more a nation since Goethe and Schiller lived and wrote.

But while literature intensifies the spirit of nationality, it does as well improve and elevate its tone. It is one and a powerful antidote to a sordid and degenerating materialism. Russia has illimitable material resources and a history running through ten centuries. But Greece, a pigmy by her side in point of physical resources, has shaped for good the fortunes of the world a thousand-fold more.

The last, best office of literature is in conserving the nationality. Letters foster manly and heroic impulses, which are the strength of a nation. The fields of war on which great principles have been fought for, have always been sanctified by the blood of scholars. The words of Cervantes have been amply verified in our recent history,—“That none make better soldiers than those who are transplanted from the region of letters to the fields of war, and that never scholar became soldier that was not a brave and good one.”

The influences of literature are in opposition to all demagogism on æsthetic and intrinsic grounds. They unite, too, the spirit of humanity and the

spirit of liberty, and uniting these they tend powerfully to conserve the nationality.

The oration was closed by a brief allusion to the probable results of the national struggle upon the future of American literature. History shows us that the effort of great men has been to raise the national mind and hasten its development. In the light of history, it is a rational expectation to anticipate for American letters an ample development in consequence of this our mighty national struggle.

THE DINNER.

After the usual march and countermarch in Manning Hall, the graduates and invited guests, passing through University Hall, entered the pavilion, and after a blessing had been asked by Rev. Dr. Thayer, of Newport, proceeded to do full justice to the material part of the Commencement dinner.

President Sears, after calling the Alumni to order, said :

"I had prepared some introductory remarks, which I will now do you the favor to omit. We cannot, if we would, forget our present circumstances, even for a festal hour. College recollections are here to-day almost out of place. We care less about what men have formerly thought and said and done than we do about what they propose to say or to do at this time. The question is pressed upon us to-day, whether we shall be allowed to stand up like men and utter the sentiments which belong to patriots and carry out the principles in which we have been educated and impress them on the world around us, or whether we shall draw in our heads like turtles and lie still while the storm rages and beats against us.

"Some of our older Universities can boast of many distinguished ex-Presidents. We may adopt the language of the lioness in the old Greek fable, 'We have one, but a lion.' I know there is no voice that will be more pleasing to the numerous gentlemen, young and old, who have received instruction from that source, and I know that they will listen no more delightfully to any man to give them words of wisdom and of good counsel in this hour of trial than to his. Of what he has done, I forbear to-day to speak. What he thinks we ought to do, I now, in your name, call on him to say."

Dr. Wayland said :

"I could not keep silent even if I would. In the presence of so many with whom I have been intimately associated, men who have won themselves imperishable honors in all the stations of life, men to whom I listen and whose works I read with the greatest pleasure—I could not if I would be silent in the presence of such a company. I remember the years we spent together. I remember very well the gentleman here whom I turned out of his room when I first came to college, and who has made a very large room for himself in the

old commonwealth of Massachusetts, and a still larger one at Washington. All these reminiscences come upon me. Still there are deeper, more impressive things now to speak of.

"I said a few words to you at the last Commencement, and ventured the promise that the sons of Rhode Island would always be true to their country and ready to bare their bosoms in her defence. They have nobly fulfilled that prophecy. To the Rhode Island battery we owe the taking of Pulaski, and this college may inscribe Pulaski on its banners, as one of its graduates commanded the battery that riddled the fortress. Thus has it been everywhere. Though our State is small, her doings have not been small. Everywhere, where danger calls, they have been prominent in the tented field. With an uncomplaining energy and courage that has never been surpassed, they have met the enemy of our country. They will do the same always, and now in the hour of our greatest peril, now while all we hold dear is trembling in the balance, we know that Rhode Island men are always to be relied on, and that they will do their duty in the presence of God and man.

"But I must go still further. While the balance is thus trembling, we know that it is held by an omnipotent hand, which is guided by justice, by mercy and by equity. There is not a man of you who would not, for the cause of our country, peril property and life. But I would have every one of you look up to that throne that judges in equity. I believe God is chastening us for our neglect of Him. I call upon you, ministers of the gospel, to state these things before your people, passing by secondary matters. But relying on His promises, though the day be dark, and the news not cheering, I believe that God in his infinite mercy and power is for us. God is just, and the trial will be for the greatest good of the country, and we shall yet come out of it the first nation on the face of the earth."

Patriotic speeches were also made by Governors Sprague, Washburn, Andrew and Berry, and by Judge Thomas, Rev. A. Woodbury, Rev. Dr. J. G. Warren, and others. The exercises of the dinner were of unusual interest, and all the speakers were listened to with close attention.

THE RECEPTIONS.

At the close of the Commencement Dinner, a large number of the old pupils and friends of Dr. Wayland repaired to his residence, to pay their respects to their revered instructor. The hour was a very pleasant one to the numerous guests, and we trust to the venerable Ex-President himself, who maintains so lively an interest in his old students.

In the evening the mansion of President Sears was thronged with visitors, and with the pleasant entertainment afforded by his hospitalities the festivities of Commencement closed.

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. CADY, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Peep into the Dock.—No. 8.

I have already alluded to the multitudes of Snails, as they are generally called, which inhabit the bottom of the Dock, and throng the broad fronds of the Ulva, upon which they feed. A superficial examination would be far from suggesting that these creatures are herbivorous in their habits. We should be likely, at first view, to pronounce them destitute of organs for masticating the leathery fronds upon which we find them, and in the next we might be inclined to doubt the existence of a digestive apparatus sufficiently powerful, in animals of so soft a texture, to reduce such aliment to a nutritious condition. We capture a snail, and he retreats wholly within his shell, and even closes the door of his habitation with the toe nail of the broad foot upon which he was just now creeping. His home is now his castle, and his retreat is secure so long as there is no enginery sufficiently powerful to pierce or batter down its walls. He is pretty safe against all enemies except such as can either engulf him, house and all, in their capacious maw, or those that can besiege him within his castle, and force him to surrender by presenting him starvation as an alternative. If unmolested he soon draws his bolts, steps over the threshold and looks forth again upon the outer world. His physiognomy is somewhat peculiar. His nose is very long, and from his use of it, in swinging it about and apparently employing it to feel his way, we might suppose him blind, and that his nose was serving him as a long cane for safe guidance. But no; he is no candidate for the asylum.

The golden sunbeam also shines for him.

On each side of his nose (or perhaps more correctly, his trunk,) is a tentacle situated upon his head much like the horn of a cow, and endowed with exquisite sensibility. Towards the base of each of these is placed an eye adequate to all his *visionary* wants. We do not discover his ears. In all probability, he has little use for them. Whether they were suppressed in some of his "*great forbears*" because their proper use was neglected, perhaps the advocates of "natural selection" may explain. But, so far, he has shown no mouth or other organ capable of taking other than liquid food. We should be likely to pronounce him innocent of the possession of teeth. But he can be more of a knave than he looks. The fact is, that he possesses another proboscis, quite different from the one he now exhibits, which he can thrust out at will, armed with "*serried columns*" of powerful

teeth, with which he can cut and rasp and grind the ocean herbage much finer and more effectually than the flocks and herds that graze upon the meadows. He has now swallowed his proboscis, teeth and all. His throat, if we may apply this term to the extension of his horny tongue, which is an inch or more in length, is lined with rows of teeth, hundreds in number, conical, pointed, and interlocking like those of a carding machine, so that when they have been once examined with the microscope we can no longer doubt or wonder at their power of mastication.

But some of these Prosobranchs, (which term is used to designate one of the sub-classes of the Gasteropods, or "*belly-footed*" animals), are capable of what is more surprising. In one of my searches for sea anemonies, I found several fine specimens of the *Buccinum plicosum*. Some of these I placed in my aquarium without any suspicion of their carnivorous instincts. I had previously introduced a large and beautifully white, water-worn pebble of quartz, about half covered with *Balani*, commonly called *Barnacles*, and had frequently watched with delight the active protrusion of their finger-like cirrhi, as they rapidly thrust them forth and withdrew them within their cone-like shells. I soon found that the *Buccinums* seemed very partial to the barnacle stone as a resting place. Next I observed a few of the inner shells of the barnacles scattered on the bottom, and the outer cones empty. I was a little suspicious of foul play, but felt quite as much inclined to suspect mischief from a stout-handed crab that I had seen in the same vicinity, as from any other source. The common shore-snails were certainly not to blame; I had never seen them there. Most of the barnacles continued active, but the work of destruction went on, and the wrecks accumulated. Finally the last of the colony became a victim, and there could not remain a doubt in respect to the authors of the work of extermination. The *plicosums* were the executioners, and of course possessed instruments sufficiently powerful to penetrate the shells of the barnacles, as well as to devour their substance. I had previously read of oysters being attacked by "*the borers*," and after witnessing the destruction of the barnacles determined to investigate the matter a little farther. I therefore improved an opportunity to make inquiry of the oystermen near India Point, in Providence, and was presented with a shell of the identical pattern of the *plicosums*, and assured that it belonged to the species which destroyed the oysters. In the heaps of shells that were lying about, there were large numbers more or less perforated with holes scarcely larger than a large knitting needle. Generally these holes did not extend entirely through the shell. A large portion of the shells containing holes were very much thickened, indicating that the oyster, as he felt the murderous drill of his enemy approaching his vitals, had

ickened his walls of defence, and thus saved himself from destruction. From the Smithsonian report for 1860, I copy the following in respect to a group *Proboscidifera*, to which these creatures belong :

"All these creatures are able to swallow their outs and their tongues. They have sharp tentacles, with the eyes generally placed on knobs at way up the sides. They have thin necks; and, when not hungry, appear very innocent, as well as graceful creatures, the dangerous organs being quite concealed. Their foot is large, flat and spreading, more separate from the body than the snails.* But when their hungry or ferocious instincts are aroused, they dart out a long trunk, sometimes even longer than their shell, at the end of which are various drilling teeth, so arranged that they can bore a hole even in the strongest shells, and suck out the unfortunate inhabitant. Every one must have observed these accurately turned holes, especially near the hinge of bivalve shells. Besides this drill-bearing trunk, they have a long, horny tongue, or 'lingual ribbon,' armed with hundreds of teeth, arranged in various patterns, which differ in the various families. These tongues, when at rest, lie coiled up in a cavity near the stomach. They do not make such quick work with their prey as do the cuttles. Fancy the condition of an unfortunate clam or muscle, resting peaceably in his bivalve shield, as he hears a rattling noise, outside his liver, going on hour after hour, he knows not why. At last he feels the drill, and then the horny tongue entering his vitals, and he is sucked out of existence without the possibility of defence!"

Near to the place where the India Point oyster-man picked up the shell which he regarded as the best of the oyster bed, the remains of a large piece of timber, pierced through and through with holes ending in every direction, had been dragged up from below the line of low water. The boring in this case was the work of quite a different class of predatedors from those which attack the oyster. The workmen belonged to the class of bivalves. Of these bivalve borers there are two prominent families; the *Pholadidae* or Date-fish, and *Teredinidae*, or Ship-worms. The ravages of the latter upon the hulls of vessels is a matter of common observation. It may not be so generally understood that this creature is, in reality, a bivalve shell-fish. Want of personal observation compels me to gather my facts from other sources. These represent the *Teredo* as consisting of a body, con-

taining the principal organs of nutrition, scarcely larger than a pea, and inclosed in a bivalve shell. From this extend pipes two feet or more in length. The "boring foot" is finger-shaped, and is fully equal to its appointed task. All timber below the line of low tide, unless covered with metal or impregnated with some poisonous mineral solution, is liable to its attacks, wherever the climate is sufficiently warm to admit it to live. Of course all ships whose bottoms are not coppered are liable to be destroyed, in a less or greater length of time, except when sailing in high northern or southern latitudes. I find it stated, in the second series of Buckland's *Curiosities of Natural History*, that these creatures work vigorously in English waters, as is shown by the fact that both Quebec elm and English oak, after being exposed four years in the sea in the pier at Yarmouth, were "quite honey-combed by the 'worm,' as the shipwrights call it." In the same book, among the specimens described as belonging to the British Museum, the following are mentioned: "Portion of the bottom of her Majesty's ship *Blenheim*, seventy-four, lost, with her commander, Sir Thomas Trowbridge, and her crew, on her passage from India. Plank of the barge of her Majesty's ship *Etna*, employed on survey of coast of Africa, 1832—one hundred days in water, bored by *Teredo Navalis*."

Mr. Buckland also quotes eight pages containing an account of the ravages of the *Teredo* upon the Russian ships which were sunk during the siege at Sebastopol. From this I extract the following:

"When the Russian commander of Sebastopol found that he would not be able to screen his ships from the fire of the enemy, and that the fleets of England and France would come into the harbor, he sunk the great fleet of sixty-two ships! The British sailor sighed as he viewed the tops of the masts peeping out of the water, and counted the loss this act was to himself. What a rich prize did the harbor of Sebastopol contain.

"After the city had fallen, a company of divers, under Mr. Deane, was sent out from Kent. The director of the party was prepared to send down his men, and furnish a report of the condition and situation of the ships; but the guns from the north side prevented the vessel which bore the diving apparatus; and then peace came, and the sunken ships that had cost millions in their construction, were left to the Russians. They have not been raised; though a contract has been entered into with an American, who is reported to have shown great skill in recovering from a depth large sunken ships in other parts of the world. A newspaper account has conveyed to the public many particulars of the intended plans, and of the descent of a diver to view many of the costly ships. This explorer found the American raisers had been anticipated by a more numerous, indeed innumerable party of joint carpenters and masons, destroyers. Of course the ships were worthless. J. P. C.

*The term *snail* is generally employed, with a rather loose application, so as to include all the smaller varieties of spinal univalves. Scientific accuracy, however, seems to limit it to the *Pulmonates*, or 'air-breathers,' which live on the land, and belong to a lower grade than the 'Sea-crawlers.' The shells of snails proper are thinner and lighter than sea shells, as they have no support from the water in carrying them."

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster.

ARITHMETIC.

1. Divide .008 by 50, 500 by .04, .9 by .9; multiply the sum of the quotients by .007 and divide the product by 100.1001 till four quotient figures are obtained.

2. What part of 3 1-5 miles is 9 inches and 10 7-11 rods?

$$3. \left[\frac{1}{4 \overline{3-5}} + \frac{.41 \overline{7-10}}{.06\frac{2}{3}} + \frac{.062\frac{1}{2}}{5} \right] + \frac{.062\frac{1}{2}}{.0\frac{7}{8}} = ?$$

4. Get the amount of \$989.875 for the time between the dates, Dec. 11th, 1855 and March 17th, 1859, at 5½ per cent.

5. I got a note for \$606.42, payable in 5 months, discounted at a bank, and put the money received on interest for one year at 7½ per cent. When the note became due I renewed it for 4 months by paying the discount. When this note became due I renewed it for such a time that it became due at the end of the year, when I collected the sum due me and paid the note. What sum did I make by the transaction?

6. A merchant sold 2-5 his goods at a gain of 10 per cent., ¼ of them at a loss of 20 per cent., ½ of them at a profit of 25 per cent. and 1-10 of them at a discount of 5 per cent. How must he sell the remainder to neither gain nor lose by the entire transaction?

7. What must be the dimensions of a rectangular field to contain 6 acres, if the width is to the length as 5 to 12?

8. What is the area of a right-angled triangle if its perpendicular be 12 ft. and its base 4 ft. less than its hypotenuse?

9. What depth of earth must be removed from ¼ an acre to fill a trench 30 rds. 4 yds. 2 ft. 6 in. in length, 6 ft. 9 in. wide and 5½ ft. deep?

10. I obtained from a bank for my note, payable in 4 months 9 days, money enough to purchase a farm containing 20 rectangular lots each 15 rods wide, and in length 5 rods less than the distance between the opposite corners, and worth 87½ cents per square yard. For what sum was the note written?

MENTAL ARITHMETIC.

1. If from 7 times the third of a number there be taken 60 more than the number itself ¼ the number will still remain. Required the number.

2. What number is that to which if twice itself be added, and from the sum there be subtracted 5 times the half of the number, and the remainder

be multiplied by ¼, and 3¼ be added to the product, the sum will be 5¼ less than ½ the number?

3. If I sell my oranges at 6 cents apiece I would gain 21 cents; and if at 4½ cents apiece I would lose 21 cents. How many oranges have I?

4. A lad bought some apples at 4 for 3 cents, and as many more at 80 for a dollar. He sold them at 2 for 3 cents, and found he had gained \$1.25. How many of each kind did he buy?

5. A person being asked the time of day, said that if to the time past noon be added its ¼, 11-12, ¾, ¾, and 1-6 the sum would be equal to 4-5 the time to midnight. Required the time.

6. A's money is to B's as 13-20 to 4-5, but after A has spent \$60 and B \$75, A's money just equals B's. What had each?

7. A and B invest equal sums in trade. A loses a sum equal to 16⅔ per cent. of his stock, when his money is 3-5 of B's. B gained \$21.42. What did each invest?

8. A boy being asked the time of day, answered, that 5-6 the time past midnight is equal to 4-9 of ¾ the time to noon. What was the hour?

9. I bought goods for 90 10-11 per cent. of their real worth, and sold them for 8½ per cent. less than their real worth. What did I gain per cent.?

10. A boy can do a piece of work in 3-14 of a day and a man can do it in 3-23 of a day. In what time can both working together do it?

GEOGRAPHY.

1. What rivers have their sources near the eastern boundary of Utah territory?

Answer. The head branches of the Colorado, the Rio Grande, the Arkansas, the Kansas, the North Fork and the South Fork of the Nebraska, the head branches of the Missouri, and the head branches of the Lewis.

2. Describe the above rivers.

3. What rivers have their sources near the western boundary of North Carolina?

Ans. The head branches of the Alabama, the Chattahoochee, the head branches of the Altamaha, the Savannah, the head branches of the Santee—which are the Broad, Saluda and Wateree, the Cape Fear river, the Roanoke, the head branches of the Great Kanawha, the Big Sandy, the Licking, the North Fork, Middle Fork and South Fork of the Kentucky, the Cumberland, the Clinch, the Holston and the Tennessee.

4. Describe the above rivers.

5. What rivers have their sources near Mounts Brown and Hooker?

Ans. Oregon, Frazers, the head branches of the Mackenzies, the Peace, the Athabaska, the North Branch and the South Branch of the Saskatchewan.

6. Describe the above rivers.

7. What rivers have their sources near the extreme western central part of Maine?

Ans. Connecticut, the Androscoggin, the Kennebec, the Penobscot, the St. Johns, the Chaudiere and the St. Francis.

8. Describe the above rivers.

9. Name and describe the remaining large rivers of North America.

10. Rivers are of what use?

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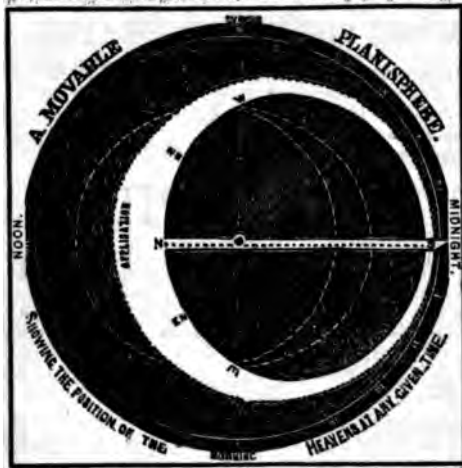
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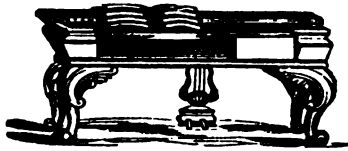
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The R. I. Schoolmaster.

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Origin and Progress of the English Language.—No. 2.

We have said that Julius Cæsar conquered a portion of Britain in the year 54 B. C., but Britain formed no integral part of the Roman Empire until about a century later. The civil wars, that followed the death of Cæsar, employed the armies of the Romans within the limits of the Empire, and it was not until the year 43 A. D., in the reign of the Emperor Claudius, that the conquest of the island was fairly commenced.

Many of the generals who successfully commanded the Roman legions in Britain were more anxious to secure splendid triumphs at Rome, than to add valuable provinces to the Empire. This self-aggrandizement on the part of the generals, and a fierce valor on the part of the natives, which at times rose to a savage desperation, retarded the conquest of the island for many years. In the year 84 A. D., the dominion of the Romans was fully established as far as the firths of Clyde and Forth. The completion of the conquest thus far was largely owing to the genius of Julius Agricola, who governed the island during the reigns of Vespasian, Titus and Domitian. The virtues of Agricola, as a military leader and as a man, are clearly and beautifully delineated by Tacitus. He possessed not only the skill requisite to subjugate the Britons, but sufficient ability to introduce the Roman institutions and customs, and thus to incorporate the Britons into the Roman Empire.

For upwards of three hundred years the Roman Empire extended from the snows of Caledonia to the sands of Africa. Weakened by its

very greatness and undermined by the luxuries and vices of the imperial city, this mighty fabric of empire hastened to ruin. In the fifth century, the Goths and Vandals from the north—a relentless tide—swept over the fair fields of Italy, entered the seven-hilled city, and, with a fury that knew no pity, destroyed both the Romans and their works. Those civil, social and literary institutions which had made Italy a radiating center of intelligence to all the Empire, were swept away and darkness settled down upon the troubled waters of society.

We might easily infer that the Roman eagles no longer commanded respect in the distant province of Britain. The year 409 may mark the end of the Roman dominion. The legions were recalled to defend the Italian frontier. Britain was the last province acquired and the first to be abandoned.

It was the policy of the Romans to introduce their institutions and language into the provinces subjugated by their arms. They knew that common institutions and a common language are bonds of union.

The impress of the Latin language has never been effaced from those parts of continental Europe that once constituted a part of the Roman Empire. The Romans held dominion in Britain during a shorter period than in Gaul or Spain.

But little of the Latin language remained behind them in the island. Some philologists affirm that only twelve words remain in our language as mementos of the first Roman period. Among these are: street, from *stratus*, a word applied to the broad way that bisected their camps; colon, from *Colonia*, and chester, from

castrum, a camp, that terminate some of the names of English towns.

The conditions necessary for the amalgamation of the Latin and the native tongue did not exist in Britain while the Romans held the island. They held it by military possession, and there was little of that intimate intercourse that follows the peaceable settlement of one people in the country of another; little of that intermingling of interests and pursuits that an active trade between the two races would have secured. The spread of the English language in India illustrates the condition of the language of the Romans in England two thousand years ago. In those parts of India where the conquering race is brought in close contact with the natives, as in Calcutta and other places of trade, the English language is rapidly gaining ground; while in other parts of India, dotted here and there with forts, garrisoned by English soldiers, the language of the country is but little, if at all, modified.

The presence of the Roman forces in the island was less effectual in introducing the Latin language, because those forces were made up in part of foreign mercenaries. Upwards of forty barbarous legions, it has been said, composed some of natives of Germany, some of Moors, Dalmatians and Thracians, served their time in the armies of the Empire, and settled upon lands in various parts of the island, principally upon the northern and eastern coasts and in the neighborhood of the Roman walls.

After the Roman forces left Britain, and liberty was again restored, the Britons found themselves in a worse condition than before. The Picts and Scots of Caledonia, or Scotland, were no longer awed by the presence of Roman troops, for the Roman eagle that had protected the Britons had flown to her eyrie in the seven-hilled city, leaving them a prey to their northern enemies. The Britons, who had lost not only their liberty but much of their valor while subject to the Romans, were unable to repel the fierce intruders, who were pressing like hungry wolves from the wilds of Caledonia. They once and again sent an embassy to Rome, praying that the Emperor would not abandon them to the ferocity of their northern foes.

A third embassy was even more importunate than the two preceding. The British ambassadors bore to Etius, the commander of the imperial legions, a letter from their countrymen inscribed with this pathetic title, "The groans of the Britons." The tenor of the letter corre-

ponded with the title. "The barbarians," say they, "chase us into the sea; the sea, on the other hand, throws us back upon the barbarians; and we have only the hard choice left us of perishing by the sword or the waves."

But "the multitudes" were pouring from the "frozen north," marking their course with fire, pillage and blood. The political fabric of the Cæsars was tottering and ready to fall. The inhabitants of Italy were too much engaged in the struggle for their own safety to lend their sympathies or their aid to the distant Britons.

The Picts and Scots at length, satiated with plunder, retreated to their own mountain wilds. In the interval of quiet the Britons returned to their former homes. Fruitful seasons restored plenty. Some historians even maintain that the luxury and vice of the Britons were the cause of the evils that succeeded. Be that as it may, their old enemies, the Picts and Scots, again descended upon them.

The Britons at this time sought aid of some of the Gothic tribes living along the southern shore of the North Sea. The fertile fields and older towns of the Britons had been objects of avarice to these Gothic tribes for some time. They at once began to cross the sea and settle in Britain, and this leads us to what Craik has thus stated to be the most important fact in the history of the English language, viz.: "After the extinction of the Roman dominion, the country was in great part conquered, taken possession of and occupied, by certain tribes of Gothic race and language, whose descendants have ever since formed the bulk of its population."

In order to understand more clearly the character, customs and language of these tribes, we must first consider the origin, migrations and general characteristics of that division of the human family called the Gothic race.

J. C. G.

PLEASURES AND ADVANTAGES OF LABOR—

There is a very false notion in the world respecting employment. Thousands imagine that if they could live in idleness they would be perfectly happy. This is a great mistake. Every industrious man and woman knows that nothing is so tiresome as being unemployed. During some seasons of the year we have holidays, and it is pleasing on these occasions to see the operative enjoy himself; but we have generally found that after two or three days' recreation, the diligent mechanic or laborer becomes quite

unhappy. Often he sighs over the wretchedness of being idle. The fact is, we are made to labor, and our health, comfort and happiness depend upon exertion. Whether we look at our bodies or examine our minds, everything tells us that our Creator intended that we should be active. Hands, feet, eyes and mental powers, show that we were born to be busy. If we had been made to be idle, a very large portion of our bodily and mental faculties would be redundant.—*New York Teacher.*

Our Country.

BY REV. DR. BETHUNE.

MAINE, from her farthest border, gives the first exulting shout,
And from New Hampshire's granite heights the echoing peal rings out;
The mountain farms of staunch Vermont prolong the thundering call;
Massachusetts answers—"Bunker Hill!"—a watch-word for us all.
Rhode Island shakes her sea-wet locks, acclaiming with the free,
And staid Connecticut breaks forth in sacred harmony;
The gaint joy of proud New York, loud as an earthquake's roar,
Is heard from Hudson's crowded banks to Erie's crowded shore.
New Jersey, hallowed by their blood who erst in battle fell
At Monmouth's, Princeton's, Trenton's fight, joins in the rapturous swell.
Wide Pennsylvania, strong as wide, and true as she is strong,
From every hill and valley pours the torrent-tide along.
Stand up, stout little Delaware, and bid thy volleys roll:
Though least among the Old Thirteen, we judge thee by thy soul!
Hark to the voice of Maryland! over the broad Chesapeake
Her sons as valiant as their sires, in cannonadings speak.
Virginia, nurse of Washington, and guardian of his grave,
Now to thine ancient glories turn the faithful and the brave:
We need not hear the bursting cheer this holy day inspires,
To know that in Columbia's cause "Virginia never tires."
Fresh as the evergreen that waves above her sunny soil,
North Carolina shares the bliss, as oft the patriot's toil;

And the land of Sumter, Marion, of Moultrie, Pinckney, must
Respond the cry, or it will rise e'en from their sleeping dust.
And Georgia, by the dead who lie along Savannah's bluff,
Full well we love thee, but we ne'er can love thee well enough:
From thy wild northern boundary to thy green isles of the sea,
Where beat on earth more gallant hearts than now throb high in thee?
On, on, 'cross Alabama's plains, the ever-flowery glades,
To where the Mississippi's flood the turbid Gulf invades;
There, borne from many a mighty stream upon her mightier tide,
Come down the swelling, long huzzas from all that valley wide,
As wood-crowned Alleghany's call, from all her summits high,
Reverberates among the rocks that pierce the sunset sky;
While on the shores and through the swales, 'round the vast inland seas,
The Stars and Stripes, 'midst freemen's songs, are flashing to the breeze.
The woodsman, from the mother, takes his boy upon his knee,
To tell him how their fathers fought and bled for liberty;
The lonely hunter sits him down the forest spring beside,
To think upon his country's worth and feel his country's pride;
While many a foreign accent, which our God can understand,
Is blessing Him for home and bread in this free, fertile land.
Yes! when upon the eastern coast we sink to happy rest,
The Day of Independence rolls still onward to the West,
Till dies on the Pacific shore the shout of jubilee,
That woke the morning with its voice along the Atlantic sea.
O God! look down upon the land which thou hast loved so well,
Nor while the grass grows on the hill, and streams flow through the vale,
May they forget their fathers' faith, or in their covenant fail!
God keep the fairest, noblest land that lies beneath the sun—
"Our country, our whole country, and our country ever one!"

Poor authors set luxurious tables for others, while starving at their own.

From the New York Teacher.
True Ideal of the Teacher's Work.

AN ADDRESS, BY GEORGE W. HOSMER.

I can never think of addressing teachers without a trembling sense of responsibility, and yet I never decline. Hope conquers fear. Hope of doing something to aid you brings me here to-night.

If one has an appropriate thought, it is a privilege to stand before such an audience as this and utter it; and though one should come here without a worthy thought, the influences around him could hardly fail to make him think and speak too. I seem to myself standing amidst a throng of many thousands. I see each teacher surrounded by pupils, all my audience. Teacher and taught are in such connection, that the inner life-current passes through the circuit, and in touching the springs of the teacher's soul, I see all those thousands moving responsive to the impulse.

It is a great thing to lay one's hand upon a teacher's motives. To speak to a teacher is more than to speak to a king. Kings sit on lofty thrones and rule men, but teachers mold the children who are to make both king and kingdom.

It is said of glorious John Milton, that when a young man, travelling and studying in the south of Europe, news reached him of the troubled state of affairs in England under the blind folly of Charles I., and the poet-politician hastened home to prepare the nation to meet the approaching crisis, by educating youth. Could he have met a convention of teachers, touching the youth of England as you do the youth of New York, how gratefully he would have seized his opportunity!

Dark clouds are sweeping through our skies now. Our government, our nationality, the fruits of our fathers' toil and prayers and blood are imperilled, and our first duty is to put a force into the field that can utterly annihilate this most wicked and gigantic rebellion the world ever saw. All must go who can, and all must give who can; and everybody must hope inveterately, and not creak nor find fault when they don't know about what they complain. God speed the volunteers.

But meantime there is work to be done at home. Our nation must be raised to the height of the momentous crisis before us. All must be raised, old and young, or we never can ac-

complish our high destiny. There are masses of ignorance, and in this darkness are base selfishness and party jealousies and low-born ambition. Our people must get above all these sins, and rise till they can appreciate the beauty of virtue, and the nobleness of patriotism; and the reform, in large measure, is to come out of the hearts of the rising generation. Old trees, if crooked and gnarled, must remain such. The cry must be, to the nurseries and head-springs.

If, for any reason, it were desirable to prevent the waters of the northwest and the upper lakes from flowing eastward and down the falls of Niagara, it would be vain to throw a dam across the rapids just above the cataract; the mighty, hurrying flood, mustered from ten thousand head-springs, would laugh and make sport of the scattered obstructions. The better, the only course, would be to go up to the head-springs and little streams; they might be turned at the will of the engineer, and lead to the ocean down the Mississippi and onward to the sea.

And so it is in public affairs; the energies of society applied to reform abuses, are greatly wasted in battling in the rapids of accumulated floods on the very edge of the precipice down which they plunge. Would we bless our country, and for any reason we can not go to fight rebels and subdue rebellion, then we must train up the youth in the way they should go; we must take care of the sweet springs and clear brooks. Would we avert the doom that comes, sure as the retributive law of God, upon national unworthiness, we must strive to educate the rising generation to be better than their fathers.

Teachers, as patriots you have enough to do. And the Christian philanthropist, who loves his fellow men better than natal soil, better than birthright institution of freedom, better than anything beneath the heavens, who, like the divine Master, is willing to lay down life for his friends, might rejoice to meet you here; for if he could fill your hearts with his spirit, he would make you all his fellow laborers, and send you forth to meet the throngs of children and youth on their way to the active duties of life, and to mold them to virtue, to magnanimity and love.

Men are slow to discern the power of teaching, to see how the destinies of individuals and nations turn upon it. A few days ago I heard an eminent teacher assert that he could take a bright boy eight or ten years old, and in the course of two or three years, by bad training,

destroy his mental activity, and make him sluggish and stupid and reduce him to the lowest terms of imbecility; he had profoundly studied the subject of education. The capacities and springs of the child's nature were all open to his view; he knew where and how to lay his hand upon these springs, and call forth those germs of capacity. Teaching, with him, was a definite science; he had his methods to quicken, strengthen, sharpen and harmonize faculties, and he knew how, by reversing his processes, to benumb, to weaken, to confound. Few people have any idea of such a power as this in the teachers of youth. It is known very well that some teachers can help scholars more than others; but this power of mental life and death over the scholar is seldom recognized.

Horace Mann has compared a poor teacher to a non-conductor placed in the circuit of an electrical machine; he stands between knowledge and the pupil's mind, an effectual barrier. And the good teacher is a quick conductor, through which knowledge flows in to the scholar's mind. But the comparison is a weak one for Horace Mann to make. The good teacher is more than the best conductor, and the bad one is worse than any non-conductor. True teaching awakens the soul's energies, molds its inclinations, and fashions the will into character. It takes the elements of humanity and creates intelligence, power and moral beauty. It is like turning rough limestone to rich variegated marble, or converting a barren waste into a verdant, fruitful landscape.

Teachers, it is your profession I would magnify, and in order to do this, let me lead you to contemplate the true ideal of it. It is of great importance to us to be familiar with the highest ideals of our calling or profession. The lawyer, the physician, the editor, have each a noble profession, if nobly practiced; and they ought to have frequent seasons of thought upon the ideal of their occupations, lest by the influence of routine and custom, they sink into ignoble money-makers. The lawyer should be a minister of justice between man and man; the physician a minister of healing mercy to the sick and bruised and broken in body; and the editor a quickener of general intelligence and a voice for truth, right and humanity.

The true morale of professional life should be an open vision to them every day. The clergyman will sink into a mere master of religious forms and ceremonies, a declaimer of solemn phrases, a sanctified showman, unless daily he

climbs up by thought and prayer, and contemplates the ideals of his profession; nothing else can save him from sinking into formalism and hypocrisy. Many a minister has come to this, who in the morning of manhood conscientiously took his ordination vows. There is no calling or profession in which it is so difficult as in yours to keep up to the true ideal, or indeed to have that ideal in sight. Every thing is against you. Your scholars are usually too young to understand what education means; they have no idea of the results of training and study; can not imagine what good this or that exercise is to do them; they are full of impetuous life, buoyant and restive under restraint; perhaps make fun for themselves out of your favorite methods. They perplex, weary and tire you out; well is it if they do not disgust you or make you angry. A hundred roguish children make a very confused medium for a teacher to look through, at the beau ideal of his profession. Your pupils, then, will not help you much.

And, as a general thing, I fear you have reason to think the parents of your pupils do not help you maintain a high thought of your profession. What means this apparent indifference of parents to the work and progress of their children at schools? An earnest, enthusiastic teacher, who is ready to give his best life to his scholars, imagines, as indeed he has a right to expect, that the parents of his pupils will heartily coöperate with him; and when he sees that they do not,—do not even take pains to know him, and never talk with him about their children, except perhaps to find fault with his methods or discipline,—how can he help being disheartened? how keep his enthusiasm from dying out, and still hold in his soul the true ideal of educational influence? And yet he must do this; else it were better for him that a millstone were hanged about his neck and he were cast into the depths of the sea. Anything is better than to be a teacher with no morale, no true ideal—a teacher for the salary. But certainly I would not have teachers without salaries. Would that they were as well paid as singers and dancers. But no one should be a teacher who does not see a higher end of his labors than his salary. No one should be a teacher who cannot maintain enthusiasm in his profession, and keep his own soul at a good healthy moral temperature, though the parents of his pupils are as cold towards him as a Siberian winter. Then ministers are not always your

helpers as they should be. They are busy with many cares and labors. Many of them perhaps feel less interest in the schools because, in the nature of things, the common school cannot be made a sectarian institution; but whatever be the cause, the ministers and the schools both suffer from the neglect of which I hear the teachers complain. The minister has no other opportunity of usefulness more important than that opened to him in the public schools. It is a sad mistake to neglect it.

One other difficulty most teachers have to contend with: they cannot go on with the same class of pupils till the course of school education is completed. One teacher is always in the rudiments, another on the next step above, and so on up to the highest grades of study. In such ceaseless repetition of labor, there is danger that custom and routine will make the spirit dull and heavy. Many a teacher has taken a life-sleep upon the repetitious monotony of his occupation. Conscientious persons may fall here, grow weary of unvaried toil, lose sight of what ought to make them as men inspired, and fall asleep.

A friend of mine lives near some manufactories which are visited by many travellers; he is the busiest of working men, and yet he will go with his friends and show them all the curiosities; this he has done for years in despite of the monotony; and he does it, as one remarked lately, just as though each wonder was as fresh to him as to his visitors who had never seen it before; he even makes all believe that they have given him rare opportunity for new enjoyment; and indeed to him it is new enjoyment, for he so loves all men that he has enjoyment in their joy. So the teacher must guard himself by loving his pupils, and be prepared to go through with an exercise for the fiftieth time, as though it were a fresh novelty; and this can be done only by fixing the ideal of teaching in his heart. It must be fixed there, or restive, roguish children and indifferent parents and repetitious exercises will turn the teacher into a guide-post, a lifeless fixture to direct poor, little weary travellers up the hill of science.

This ideal of education, what is it; in the broadest sense and in general terms, what is it? The human being is not entirely created until educated; man is not wholly man till, by all the appliances of teaching, the germs of this faculty are developed. It takes the cultivator, with his science of agriculture and gardening, to make the earth what God intended it to be.

The husbandman helps God to create the landscape in rich variety of field, meadow, orchard, with hills covered with flocks and herds, and valleys and plains waving with wheat and corn. So the educator helps God create man. We sometimes call the rude savage, man in a state of nature; 'twere better to call him man half made; he is not in the state of his nature; not what he was intended to be; like the primeval chaos, he is without form and void, and darkness broods over the mysterious deep of his capabilities; the more than six days' work of education is yet to be done. Man must do his part or the original design of our creation will not be answered. God, with gracious benevolence, places his human family under a government of law. This law, the result of His will, is exceeding broad; it touches man in every part of his nature; as a mass of matter, as an organized body, as an intellectual, moral, spiritual being, it holds him subject. Laws of matter, health, mental and moral development and welfare, all are established, and man is subject to them,—for weal if he knows and obeys them, for woe if he infringes or violates them. The law of gravitation man must obey, or by it he will be broken, crushed, ground to powder; the laws of health he must obey, or drag his body, feeble and wasted, to an early grave. And for the spirit, not less than for the body, there are laws that must be learned and obeyed in order to mental strength and spiritual welfare. Look at the savages, so poorly clad and sheltered; with so precarious a livelihood; liable to be swept off, a whole generation together, by famine or by pestilence; with so little to enjoy and so little to hope for; filled with superstitions and beset with fears. And it is all because they do not know, and therefore cannot obey, the laws of God, touching body and spirit, the world and themselves, to which they are subject.

Or look at semi-barbarians; better clothed and sheltered; the means of sustenance more certain; life less exposed to violence and disease; with more to enjoy than the savage, because they know more of the laws of their being and of the world in which they are placed. And now look upon civilized communities. To what is their superior condition owing, their affluence, their improved health, their multiplied facilities, their wider range of thoughts and sympathies, their higher, nobler life; altogether, is it not because they have learned the laws of God, and learned also to obey them?

In some respects, all have seen how it is. Once man lived where he was born; locomotion was difficult; seas and oceans put bounds to his migrations. At length he found out certain laws of God in nature around, and constructed vessels; but the winds are fickle helpers; and in these latter days laws have been discovered, and corresponding inventions made, which enable man to ride upon the waters against wind and tide, and to fly over oceans and continents. In the lightnings laws have been discovered, and by ingenious inventions, friends a thousand miles apart may converse together as if face to face. All this comes from hearing and obeying God's laws; they are everywhere and in all things; and the civilized man differs from the savage chiefly in his better knowledge of these laws, in his superior skill in applying them, and in his more implicit obedience to them. This is readily seen in regard to the body's condition and the outward life. Now, there are laws of God touching spiritual life, less obvious, but as real, as certain, as the laws of gravitation, nutrition, steam, electricity. Some of the fundamental laws of spiritual life have been made known by revelation, others are left for man to find out; and the discovery and application of these laws and obedience to them, is the only way to the accomplishment of man's great destiny.

Think now, for a moment, of man in the savage state, or of man as he is in the vast territories of semi-barbarism, or even of man as he is often found within the limits of civilization. In the midst of a world that God has filled with laws to bless him, but he does not know them; possessed of capabilities that would make him lord of this lower world, and yet he is a poor creature; there is no sovereignty in his soul; superstition makes him afraid of his shadow; circumstances overrule him, and the world, which he might be so mighty, makes him its bond-slave. Let the human soul know, and willfully apply and implicitly obey God's laws, and there is nothing below the heavens so grand, so imperial! But standing here ignorant of these laws, it is a poor, baffled, barren, lost thing. Nothing is so sad, nothing but willful sin, nothing else is so to be deplored, as a soul that knows not the laws through which God could pour upon it blessings for body and for spirit.

And now, teachers, I know no better definition of education than this: It is the process of preparing men and women to discover the

laws of God; it is teaching them to live in harmony with such laws, and yield them a willing, grateful obedience. This definition, at first, may seem to you vague; but think of God's laws everywhere, in all things; not a step, not a hair of our heads is without its law; the cunning of the right-hand and the patient toil of the foot; thought, affection, habit, character, life, each, all have a law from God, and to know it is the science of all sciences; to obey it is the "wisdom better than rubies."

Those classes of children and youth in your schools come up to your minds, and you want something practical to aid you to do your duty to them. I would give you such aid. Think, then, of the grand ideal of teaching; it is to prepare human beings to know God's laws and to live in harmony with them; it is to coöperate with God in creating and developing intelligence, virtue, magnanimity and power in his children. Does some one say: "No, no, let us be practical. Boys and girls are to be educated; boys taught to be business men and get their living, and girls trained and accomplished to grace the homes in which they may preside. This is the work to be done, and let us attend to this." Yes, certainly, all this must not be neglected; nor will it be neglected. Indeed, it will be best accomplished by that teacher who has the clearest vision of the true ideal of his profession. That teacher will be most successful who acts with the broadest views, the deepest insight, the highest motive. Let instructors, as they enter their school-rooms, adequately feel the dignity and importance of their work; let them consider how they are called to aid in developing the powers and forming the characters of their pupils. Fellow-workers with God, let them think how much they can do for their young friends, and they can hardly fail. Memory, perhaps, will tell them how much some faithful teacher did for them, and while their hearts overflow with gratitude, they will long to do as much for their pupils as was done for them. Oh, could teachers see how the destinies of their pupils are committed to them, how their hand is laid upon the key-notes of life, and how, in after years—who shall say but in after ages—their influences will be felt and distinguished, their work would never become monotonous and dull, and they themselves would never lose their vital interest in education, never become automatons in the teacher's desk.

Keep your eyes fixed, then, and your hearts set upon the highest ideal of your work; it is

to coöperate with God in filling the souls of your pupils with intelligence, virtue and power; it is to enable them to perform faithfully, effectively, magnanimously, all the duties of life. Or, to take our definition before given of education — it is to prepare men and women to discover and thoroughly know all the laws of God amidst which their being lies, and to live in harmony with them. There can be no more practical view of education than that which this definition gives. Every exercise in a good public school bears upon the point which this definition presents. The child learning to read is preparing to discover and know the laws of God, in its being and in the universe. Every exercise that quickens, sharpens, strengthens the faculties, that forms habits of accurate thinking, close observation, moral reflection, and of willing obedience, helps to prepare the pupil to discover and to obey the great laws which control human life; laws which touch us at all points; we live in them as in the air that surrounds us. To know these laws of God is the science of all sciences. You would make your pupils useful, prepare them for business, certainly; and let it be your object to prepare them to discover and know the laws of God, around and within them, and to live in harmony with those laws, and you will give them the grandest practical education, the best, the noblest fitting for business. This boy is to be a mechanic, and that a sailor, and that a merchant; let it be your object to prepare them to discover quickly and obey readily the great laws of God amidst which each will act. I know no better term to designate the result of education than common sense, the combined result of all faculties, the sense of all senses — wide intelligence, the intuition, as it seems, of all knowledge.

Let the young man who has been educated up to this grand common sense, go and stand among a company of laborers, no matter whether they be at work upon stone or brick or timber, he will not observe them one hour without seeing where time and strength might be saved, or some improvement made; he is quick to perceive the nature of things, to detect the laws of God in those materials, in that work, and he is skillful to fall into harmony with them. So with both boys and girls, let them be educated up to this grand common sense, to this quick appreciation of the nature of things, to this high knowledge and this sublime obedience, and they are prepared to live.

I am painfully aware how imperfectly I have

spread before you the thoughts that are in my mind about teaching; but I hope you have caught a glimpse of the true ideal of the teacher's work. It is not the money, the livelihood it may secure; nor is it merely the accomplishment of your scholars in the daily studies of your schools. The livelihood is hardly earned, and should be had, and more and better than is usually given; and your scholars should be perfect as possible in every school exercise. But let the teacher magnify his office; let him remember that he is doing something more than teaching boys to do hard sums in arithmetic. The good teacher is helping God create and develop immortal beings and crown them with glory and honor.

Teachers, you have an honorable profession. May blessings rest upon the scenes of your labor. No work is better than yours. Let the vision of a true ideal stand open before you to make you patient with perplexities, fresh and vital though worn with fatigue, and interesting to your pupils as the teller of new stories, in the numberless repetitions of your daily exercises.

For the Schoolmaster.
Sunny Graves.

THOU smile of God, sweet sunny ray,
That maketh all our graves aglow,
Thy light was caught from Heaven's own day,
And fired by God's own hand, I know.

Oh! Father, let me learn from this
How warm, how sunny is thy love,
Like the mild sunbeam's gentle kiss,
That leads us to our home above.

And like the sunlight on the sod,
Type of the resurrection morn,
May my bowed soul look up to God
With joy and loving newly born.

For sure the grave is black and deep
And darkly rests the shadow there;
If on its breast the sunlight sleeps,
My soul will trust my Father's care

To make *all* darkness bright in Heaven,
To make *all* doubtings strong in God,
And every grief His hand has given
Shall bud and bloom like Aaron's rod.
Sept. 14, 1862. M. C. P.

A competent and faithful teacher never owes any gratitude to his pupils or his patrons for their confidence and patronage.

CHARITY would lose its good name were it influenced by so mean a motive as human praise

For the Schoolmaster.

The Sense of Sight and the Faculty of Expression.

(CONTINUED FROM PAGE 185, JUNE NUMBER, 1861.)

FORM. Let the shutters on one side of the school-room be closed, admitting light from the other side only. Place upon your desk, where all the scholars can see it, a cubical block of wood; let its outlines be sketched by your pupils, and then call their attention to the strong light on one side of the cube and to the deep shadow on the other. Let them notice the position of this shadow with respect to the block, its shape, where it is deepest and how it pales away into the full light. They have used their eyes; now, as their drawing-teacher, show them how, by their hands, to express, to represent on paper, what they have seen. This may be their first lesson in drawing a shadow, perhaps their first in carefully, consciously, noting one; but probably from earliest infancy, the testimony of their eyes concerning lights and shadows has been daily supplemented by that of their hands, the seat of the sense of touch. Inferences regarding the forms of bodies have been drawn from these data combined, and correct conclusions respecting them reached, by a series of unconscious mental actions not to be doubted, through which the subtle mind has added to the stores of its mysterious knowledge of matter.

Place now on your desk, bodies of less and less simple form; note the strong lights, deep shadows and softer shades, all of which are to be represented on paper as before. The human form, the face especially, with one side only towards the light, forms a difficult and an excellent study.

COLOR. How many of you think this a prett-
y flower? Can any little boy or girl tell me the
name of this color? Well, Mary, what is it?
Yellow? John, what color do you think it to
be? How many of you think that it is yellow?
Who can show me anything else in the room
that is yellow? A ribbon; a dress; the cover
of a book; the cover of a pamphlet; another
flower and the graining of the door. Do you
know any other flowers that are yellow? What,
many of you? Tell me their names. But-
ter-cup; Tulip; Cowslip; Dandelion; Crocus
and Primrose. Do you think yellow a pretty
color? I think it is. How glorious the yellow
in the autumn woods; far prettier than the reds,
though it is not the fashion to say so. What
metal is yellow? Do you know any birds with

yellow in their plumage? any butterflies with
golden spots? any fishes with golden scales?
any gilded beetles? Golden the corn; golden
the sunset clouds; golden these tropical fruits,
the cheeks of these ripe apples.

Having on one day called the attention of the
scholars to some color, as yellow, the next day
I would carry in strips of blue paper or cloth,
blue flowers or liquids; let the scholars point
out the blue dresses, the blue eyes and the blue
paper in the room, carefully noticing yourself
whether any of the class are partially color-
blind. Carry in reds; vary your exercises;
continue them in a variety of ways, for lessons
in color can be varied almost infinitely. Some
of them can be made very difficult both as re-
gards perception and description. How hard to
tell the colors of the earths and stones; how
much harder to name them.

I deem it superfluous to show that these ex-
ercises in color for primary schools are useful
and interesting, and are a healthy discipline for
the mind. How recondite the terms of the art-
ist for the numberless hues in the landscape;
how sensitive and discriminating his eye; how
copious even the language of the shops for the
colors of their fabrics; how much some of us
lose through partial color-blindness; how ne-
cessary is a good eye for color for the botanist,
zoölogist and ornithologist: look at the phra-
ses used in this fruit-book by the horticulturist
to express the delicate shades of color, on his
apples, his grapes, plums, pears, cherries and
berries. Thus color is poured out profusely eve-
rywhere; the Deity made it for man to enjoy;
let our children learn to see it and to describe it
by appropriate terms.

NUMBER. Now, my little boys and girls, I
will teach you something new. What is it? I
will tell you its name by and by. How many
would like to learn something to-day? What,
all of you? And will you look closely and
listen attentively? Then we will go on.

What is this in my hand? A bean? Yes,
and how many beans are there in my hand?
Can any one tell? Yes, Lizzie knows; *one*
bean. Notice what I say; there is *one* bean.
What did I say?—there is *one* bean,—that is
right. How many beans are there here? *One*.
How many here? *One*. What did you say
there is here? *One* bean.

What have I in this hand? *One* bean. In
this hand? *One* bean. Now I put them to-
gether on the table: how many beans are there?
One bean and *one* bean. That is right; but

can any one give me a name by which to call them? I will give you a name: be careful now; one bean and one bean are *two* beans. How many did I say? What make two beans?

How many can pick out one bean? You may, John, and you, Mary. Now put them together. How many beans now? James, you may get me two beans; Lizzie, two books; John, one pencil and one pencil; how many are both of them?

Here is one bean more. Now, how many have I here? Two beans and one bean are how many? Who will try to remember? Two beans and one bean are three beans. How many beans, did I say? Three. Can you, James, pick out three beans? and you, Mary? Let the rest look on while James counts out three beans. There:—one; and there:—two; there:—three. To say, in this way, one, two, three, is to *count*. What is it? What is it to count, or what is counting? Very well. John, you may bring me three pieces of chalk; Mary, two books; James, three pencils; and Lizzie, two pens. That will do for to-day.

Second Day. Review yesterday's lesson. How many beans are there here? Three. How many here? Two. Here? One. Put this bean there; place another beside it; how many are there now? Take one away; how many are left? If you place one bean by one bean, how many beans have you? Try it; take this bean, and this; how many are there? If you take one bean from two beans, how many are left? Try it. How many beans added to one bean make two beans? Try it. One bean taken from two beans leaves how many beans. Try it.

Well, says some one, you would have a child learn from observation only; books he is not to study; what he sees, hears and feels, that shall he know; nothing is to be learned from the testimony of others, as second hand; arithmetical tables are to be discarded. Not so; my wish is not to learn from observation solely, but in part, at least, which is not generally done. I appeal to all who remember their earlier school days, in support of this assertion. The memory is a very useful, a highly important faculty; books cannot be dispensed with in teaching; can you wisely dispense with observation? Can you safely crush out any little attempt on the part of the boy to see for himself, to ascertain by trial, to investigate? I think not. Make a proper use of both books and memory; prepare the way for using them by suitable exercises.

By a judicious use of beans, kernels of corn and apples, the child should be introduced to each new operation in arithmetic; especially to addition, subtraction, multiplication and division; to factors, multiples and fractions. Those teachers generally succeed the best in teaching arithmetic who daily illustrate the operations therein by reference to visible and tangible objects.

LENGTH. 1. *Absolute Length.* To convey the idea of length, take a string, and asking your class to give attention, place the thumb and fore-finger of the left-hand, which hold the string tightly, on a corner of some book on the table; then, slipping the string through the thumb and fore-finger of the right-hand, pass it along the edge of the book till it stops at another corner; now hold up before the class that portion of the string that measures the length of the edge from end to end; say nothing in explanation of what you have done, but ask some one of them to do the same. They will make awkward attempts at first, but with a little help from you will soon learn to get the length of the edge of any box, book, table or desk you may ask for.

2. *Comparative Length.* Again, get on the string the length of the end of the book; apply this portion of the string to the side of the book; it does not reach the whole distance. Compare in the same way the length of different edges and lines found in the room. Here the child sees that some lines are longer than others; he gets an idea of comparative length.

3. Having found, by means of the string, the inequality of the lengths of lines, let the pupil, by experiment, ascertain by how much one length exceeds another. This is *absolute difference*, the result sought in arithmetic by *subtraction*.

4. Take any short line; find, by trial, how many times it is contained in a longer line. In arithmetic we call this process *division*, and *factoring* when the one quantity is contained a whole number of times in the other.

Because of the necessity he feels of communicating to his fellows his ideas of length, man has fixed upon lines of certain extent and given them names — the inch, the foot, the pace, yard, fathom, rod or pole, chain, furlong, mile and league — by which they may be readily known. In a rude and semi-civilized state his notions of length were not very definite, as may be seen from the original meaning of many of the terms just mentioned, the names of objects which have no constant, unvarying length. As society ad-

vanced there was felt a need for units of length better defined, but, on trying to find some standard invariable and indestructible, unexpected difficulties arose, which have been overcome only by great skill on the part of the astronomer and the engineer. We, in this country, however, do not enjoy the advantages of this improved system of measurement, but have to content ourselves with comparatively rude, though pretty definite units of measure.

5. Definite Length. A foot-rule, a yard-stick and a measuring tape are now to be given to the pupil. From these he is to get accurate ideas of an inch, foot, yard and other linear units. Then he is to determine, by careful measurement, the lengths of books, desks, window-sills and doors, of the floors and walls of the school-room. He is to judge by his eye the length of a line and then find how nearly right he was in his judgment.

Let the teacher ask such questions as these: Will you draw a line on the black-board as long as that desk? as the distance between the two desks? as the length of the table? Which is the longer, this wand or the table? the window-sill or this pannel of the door? the height of the stove or the distance around it? the height of this black hat or the distance around it? How many times is the height of this black-board contained in its length? How many feet long is this room? how many feet broad? How many inches longer is this book than that?

DISTANCE. Length is a term used respecting objects; distance of the space intervening between two objects, sometimes measured on the ground, sometimes in the air; as the distance of one tree from another in a level field; of the top of a spire from the corner of a lot. The chain is the instrument commonly used to measure distances and it is well to have boys know how to use it. Let them find how many rods long this field and that street are; let them measure off a mile on each of the roads leading from the school-room door; it will make their ideas of the lengths of mountain chains and rivers all the more definite.

x.

LIVING was cheap enough in olden time. Socrates was supposed to have lived upon an income of seventy-five dollars; but he lived worse than a slave. His coat was shabby, and he wore the same garment winter and summer; he went barefooted; his chief food was bread and water; and as he engaged in no business to mend his estate or income, it is not wonderful that his wife scolded.

From the Iowa Instructor.

Six Months in a Primary School.

WOULD the readers of the *Instructor* like to know my experience in teaching a primary school? It is needless to say how I happened to be placed in such an unexpected position; but you can imagine my surprise the first morning when I looked around on my scholars, about fifty in number, the oldest not more than eleven, to see not more than half-a-dozen that looked intelligent. Yet I afterward found some of the richest ore beneath the roughest surface. Dirty, ragged and staring, my school looked anything but inviting. What should I do? Only eight out of fifty knew their letters, and but three had books. I had never printed a word, and was ashamed to make my awkward hieroglyphics, as I was every moment expecting the directors and the principal. Oh, how much rather would I have worked out a proposition in algebra or geometry than put one sentence on the board. "Heaven helps him who helps himself," I thought, and to work I went.

I seated the scholars in classes, showed them some pictures, told them a story about the drawing with which they were most pleased, then by questions had them relate as much of it as they could remember. I practiced them for some time in going quietly to and from class, in the order in which they sat. At last they were ready for the lesson. I showed them the picture of an ox; had them tell me what it was—whether a bird or an animal; of what color oxen were; what they ate and drank; how they slept; for what they were used, etc.; and at last told them that by the next day they should tell me the difference between the hoof of a cow and of a horse. I then put on the board the sentence, "It is an ox"; and thus they learned to read and spell at the same time. By the end of the term the class that did not know a letter had read through the First Reader intelligibly to themselves and to those who heard them.

I had never taught small children before, and I puzzled my brain night and day to get the best plan of mingling recreation and instruction. I procured suitable maps, and taught them geography orally, mostly about the United States. They could sing the capitals beautifully; and an orator might have envied me my attentive audience as I pointed out the principal battle-fields and told them the thrilling stories of the Revolutionary war. One day, when the usual

exercises seemed a little tiresome to both teacher and scholars, I turned to the map and pointed out Yorktown; told them of the surrender of Cornwallis, and, after showing them a picture where the sword is delivered into the hands of the victors, said, in conclusion, "And now, boys, which beat?" One little fellow, who had been bending far forward in his eagerness to hear, sprang from his seat, and clapping his hands, shouted, "We beat, Miss G.; we beat, and the Americans." They had previously learned "Yankee-Doodle," and *understood* it: I started the tune as I hung up the picture, and you can imagine how they sung; it would have done your editorial ears good to have heard them. You may be sure they resumed their studies—printing words, counting pebbles, drawing squares, writing numbers, etc.—with a zest.

I insisted on cleanliness, and secured it; taught calisthenics by songs connected with physical exercises. I excited a spirit of emulation as to who would print the most neatly, and show the most expedition and neatness in writing numbers.

At first they talked and whispered incessantly, and I could not prevent it; but I explained and illustrated the principle of self-government, as applying equally to large and small pupils. I told them that I was there to *teach*, and each child was there to govern one mind and tongue, one pair of hands, ears, eyes and feet; and if each child did its duty, how much more effectually and pleasantly I could do my part. And by judiciously commending and rewarding those who were still, and keeping every pair of little hands and eyes busy most of the time, I succeeded in having as quiet a school as any teacher could possibly desire.

In a few days I learned to print as readily as I wrote, and during the term I gained the power of interesting children as I never could before.

I have not time to tell you of how the little ones impatiently waited for the hour of our daily object-lesson, nor of how much pleasure both scholars and teacher derived from it.

Indeed, I think I have been greatly benefited by my experience in this branch of teaching. But the "conclusion of the whole matter" is that, though I have taught in the high schools of the East, and in some good schools West, I have never had a more pleasant and entertaining school than the primary department of —.

GLEANER.

For the Schoolmaster.

Improvements in Studies Allied to Grammar

We cannot leave out of view some evidences of real progress in branches of study akin to grammar. Analysis in its details has sprung up and greatly developed in the memory of more than one of my readers. Etymology of words and the study of words in general is grown into a living and beautiful science, whose results are recently shown by the celebrated Dean Trench to be within the comprehension of common readers. Even the art of spelling is rendered more easy to young students in our schools to-day by means of superior methods of grouping words so that they can readily be associated and learned. The dictionary is now a common hand-book, while not many years ago it was placed too high on the shelves for little word-gatherers to reach.

We have thus a kind of gradual course marked roughly out, that is too valuable as well as too practical wholly to overlook. Analysis rudely separates the language into a somewhat roughly-made catalogue of elements, treating of the more obvious, and at the same time the more general divisions of sentences. Grammatical etymology, or parsing, carries these divisions more intimately out and classifies words. Etymology, or The Study of Words according to the mode of Trench, cuts in parts the word itself, treating of roots, with their prefixes, suffixes or other elements; while Orthography, or spelling, separated words into letters, or syllables and letters. It is not until recently that the mode of studying the language I have just sketched has been fully brought into view. This is not yet made practical, yet it is the only complete view of the study of our language worthy of even a young student. For simply to parse or analyze is not sufficient to any discerning pupil, as must have been seen by my former papers on the subject of grammar.

It is very evident that in all science the rude outline should first be presented to the learner. Then are to be considered the more intricate and definite subdivisions of the subject, and last of all, laws are to be deduced and learned for practical use. Following, then, the course here stated, it would be well if the science of grammar were conformed to this standard. And it might be that the very order of enumeration made in the paragraph, beginning at the rougher outlines of the science and closing with the nicer distinctions of syllables and roots, by and by, when the science of our language is better un-

derstood, shall be the best method of coming to an understanding of the foundations of grammar. This order and this fullness of detail cannot be wholly ignored. As to the order, I may say that I think no one who has learned or taught English will dispute that by far the most interesting commencement of grammar is by application of the form of analysis as taught by Prof. Greene, and this, it must be conceded, is quite an important consideration. As to the breadth of the course thus marked out, I cannot think it could be shortened, and I am sure if it were well written out by an experienced hand, no half-way mode of studying English would be longer satisfactory to intelligent men.

HENRY CLARK.

The Way by which He Led Thee.

WHEN we reach a quiet dwelling
On the strong, eternal hills,
And our praise to Him is swelling
Who the vast creation fills;
When the paths of prayer and duty,
And affliction all are trod,
And we wake and see the beauty
Of our Saviour and our God;

With the light of resurrection,
When our changed bodies glow,
And we gain the whole perfection
Of the bliss begun below;
When the life that flesh obscureth
In each radiant form shall shine,
And the joy that aye endureth
Flashes forth in beams divine;

While we wave the palms of glory
Through the long eternal years,
Shall we e'er forget the story
Of our mortal griefs and fears?
Shall we e'er forget the sadness
And the clouds that hung so dim,—
When our hearts are filled with gladness
And our tears are dried by Him!

Shall the memory be banished
Of His kindness and His care,
When the wants and woes are vanished
Which He loved to soothe and share?
And the way by which He led us,
All the grievings which He bore;
All the patient love He taught us,—
Shall we think of them no more?

Yes! we surely shall remember
How He quickened us from death—
How He fanned the dying ember
With His Spirit's glowing breath;
We shall read the tender meaning
Of the sorrows and alarms,

As we trod the desert, leaning
On His everlasting arms.

And His rest will be the dearer
When we think of weary ways,
And His light will seem the clearer
As we muse on cloudy days.
O, 'twill be a glorious morrow
To a dark and stormy day!
We shall recollect our sorrow,
And the streams that pass away.

—Exchange.

For the Schoolmaster.

The Teacher in School and out of School.

How different are the personal opinions of teachers in regard to their vacation; its aim and their duties. Some have clear, well-defined views with a practice corresponding; some are vague and aimless, while the ideas of others may be correct but they bring no fruit to perfection. To the first belong such as labor not only for money, but from an equal love of the work. To the second class, those who want the pecuniary recompense, therefore the school. To the third, such as mean well but so often fluctuate in their ideas and methods that they enjoy no permanent success. Here, then, are three classes, and for the sake of the scholars, if for no other reason, every teacher should honestly decide to which he belongs, and pronounce judgment upon his motives and practice. Like teacher, like school. True, and for the proof of this, visit the various schools in our goodly city here. Yonder building is in the care of one whose keen eye, tranquil brow and firm deportment silently subscribe to the Pauline idea,—not as though I had already attained, but I press forward toward the prize of the high calling. See that ever-vigilant inspector, as with book in hand, a class arranged around the room for instruction, twenty or thirty pupils in the seats at study, he attends at once to the governing and the instruction. Watch closely; there seems to be nothing attended to, save the recitation. Look again; did you notice that black-eyed boy with his head bent almost upon his desk? Mischievous there; for see, his seat-mate is convulsed with laughter. What will the teacher do? The class is on a hard problem, all the others are at work; will he stop his recitation, publicly draw the attention of the studious ones by speaking, or let it go? Neither, he meets the eye of the delinquent, and his glance is a command, one wave of the finger, one decided gesture, and the work is done.

There is a great deal in the ideas suggested by the methods of such a disciplinarian. Public reproof often multiplies misdemeanors. For instance, the scholars are all informed that some of their mates are in mischief; the spirit of mischief takes possession of them, and they, who a few moments previous, were studious and unconscious of proceedings around, having their attention arrested, their own inclinations to sport awakened, commence similar proceedings and copy the example of their mirthful neighbors.

It requires no slight degree of tact and shrewdness to deal with different pupils so as to tell upon the school effectively. There may be found four or five at once, all deficient upon one particular point, perhaps a lack of application. Not one can be dealt with as the others. To reprove one might be best for him, but it would have no effect on the others, and the skillful instructor whispers a few words of encouragement to a second, appeals to the pride of a third, praises a fourth, (judiciously, of course,) and demonstrates to the last, a presuming, careless, obstinate youngster, the practical benefits arising from a discreet, efficient use of the ratan. Oh ye modern "moral suasionists," ye modern "philanthropists," strike the words of the wise man from the Bible, and show to the world by your own practice, that obedience and the best good of the young are secured permanently *without* the use of the rod; show your faith by works instead of words, and it is enough.

Visit another school, in care of one of that class which seeks the teacher's berth for money's sake. Well! appearances do not seem to indicate this, but just talk with the teacher, and soon you will discover his aim. He does not like school-keeping, it is complete drudgery, no private instruction is offered to those whose slower minds need somewhat more of it than those more brilliant and easy to learn. The stated duties of each day are attended to just faithfully enough to incur no censure, but the hour for dismissal comes and ere the pupils are all gone from their room the teacher is "homeward bound." No more to be done after twelve and five o'clock. No more responsibility after those hours. Results: the children rushing out of the building, screaming in the streets, rude in conversation and exerting a bad influence on those who, under the care of more conscientious, watchful persons, would be gentle and well-behaved.

Then there are teachers who are ever trying

new plans without completing any. It is not advisable to fall into one stereotyped method, a beaten track; there is danger of becoming, as our Superintendent has it, "a fossilized pedagogue." The ideas of such an individual are limited and he can discern no good beyond his own line of vision. But to be forever planning, systematizing, and guided so much by impulsiveness, is mere childish work. 'Tis well to try new plans after first deciding if they be worth a trial. If so, "hold fast that which is good."

Thus much for the teacher *in* school, and now a few thoughts in reference to him out of school.

As teachers vary in reference to their operations in school, their faithfulness (faithfulness of the heart as well as the letter) so do they differ in the amount of attention they give to school matters in the time, which in one sense and to a certain extent, is their own. Do not rise indignantly, brother and sister dominie, and condemn what you may be pleased to term a needless theorizing on "devotedness." We by no means intend to say that immediately on leaving school you should commence racking an already weary brain to devise some plan for bringing up your classes, or for *remodelling* the very peculiar dispositions of excessively incompatible youth, or of sitting down in this exhausted condition before a pile of treatises on penmanship, tomes on elocution, &c., &c. Ah, no! we ourselves know what it is to get all tired out and be glad to enter the precincts of home. But this we do mean: No teacher can possibly succeed who gives his school a comparatively slight amount of thought in his own time. How many are there who are prepared to conduct a recitation when the hour comes for it? It is hardly prudent to appear before pupils without having first looked over the lesson of the day and digested it mentally, before presenting ideas to the class. This does not require such a vast amount of time, and certainly is very beneficial. Has a hard case requiring discipline occurred during the session, or is the heart saddened by seeing that those who are under our care are really behind those in the care of others? Let us think upon such matters in the stillness of home and quietly, yet firmly, decide what to do, then do it. *Plan* out of school and perseveringly *perfect* in school. In seasons of leisure compare notes with fellow-laborers who are considered preëminently successful; for thus simple hints are gained of far more practical importance than can be obtained from well writ-

ten essays. By no means is extensive reading to be ignored. Teachers need this for their own good; but unless "the root of the matter be in them," unless they possess native strength of mind, skill and tact, all such reading will never give rise to a perfect school. "Individuals," says a certain preacher, "may possess great *knowledge* and yet be destitute of wisdom." Fellow teacher, the remark will bear studying.

In summing up these ideas let us ponder one question: What should a teacher be, in school and out of school? In school, *vigilant* yet quiet, *frank* yet not *familiar*, *firm* yet calm, *steady* yet wide-awake and all alive. Out of school, just what he would have his pupils be at all times: intelligent, systematic, faithful, self-reliant, yet not self-conceited, unamiable or volatile.

WANDERING JEWESS.

From the Providence Evening Press.

Notes by the Wayside.

In a previous chapter of wayside notes, I alluded, I think, to the forest trees found along our marches in Virginia and Maryland. There are other natural productions of the country not devoid of interest to the lover of the beautiful, or to the eye of the utilitarian.

Vines—these beautiful symbols of faith and affection—are found in all the lowland forests, and even on the wooded hill-sides, reaching upward and clasping the more sturdy growths to share with them the light and warmth of the day-king; repaying them in graceful forms, in lines of beauty and clusters of inviting fruit. The grapes are of different varieties. The early, large grapes, are most abundant; and these are of three kinds; the dark purple, which are most common; the pale red or drab, which has the choicest flavor; and the white, or cream-tinted, which has a mild but very agreeable relish. The next in season and in size, but more inviting to the inflated taste, are the little, deep blue, fox grapes, a variety unknown, I think, in most parts of New England. These are not very abundant, but are eagerly sought. They are very round, of the size of the common gooseberry, with a flavor equalling the choicest foreign clusters. Last in the season and least in size, are the abundant, dark brown, frost grapes, acrid to the palate, and but little coveted. The above varieties, taken in the order mentioned, are vulgarly styled "bull grapes," "fox grapes," and "pidgeon grapes"—names, all must agree, too low and gross for such graceful, pleasing, deli-

cate, delicious creations given for our enjoyment and study.

The more humble but more fruitful vines—like the modest, retiring virtues of the home circle, blooming in white, blushing to maturity, each of its numerous fruits being a crown of jewels,—the field blackberry graces most of the pastures, and flourishes in great perfection. The hedges and road-sides are adorned with the prolific bush blackberry, that in the size of its fruit, often vies with the famous "Lawton" and possesses an equally rich flavor.

The secession soil is too heavy and clayey for the delicate, rose-cheeked strawberry; yet a few, in favored localities, are found peering out from the lawn's green robes to cheer the eye, and excite the taste.

Here the peach finds a more congenial climate than in New England; it prefers sunny plains and protected slopes, to bleak hills and chilly valleys. The trees are found, not only clustering around the residences and in orchards, but frequently in rows on the field borders. The pulps, particularly of the clingstones, are rich, juicy and palate-pleasing, though the people pay too little attention to the choicest varieties. To a weary soldier halting on his long march, or after a battle having lived on hard bread and meat, a peach-feast is wholesome and refreshing. F. D.

By-and-By.

THERE is a little mischief-maker
That is stealing half our bliss,
Sketching pictures on a dream-land
Which are never seen in this;
Dashing from our lips the pleasure
Of the present, while we sigh—
You may know this mischief-maker,
For his name is "By-and-by."

He is sitting by our hearth-stones,
With his sly, bewitching glance,
Whispering of the coming morrow,
As the social hours advance;
Loitering 'mid our calm reflections,
Hiding forms of beauty nigh,—
He's a smooth, deceitful fellow,
This enchanter, "By-and-by."

You may know him by his mincing,
By his careless, sportive air,
By his sly, obtrusive presence
That is straying everywhere;
By the trophies which he gathers,—
Where his cheated victims lie,
For a bold, determined fellow,
Is this conqueror, "By-and-by."

When the calls of duty haunt us,
And the present seems to be
All the time that ever mortals
Snatch from long eternity;
Then a fairy hand seems painting
Pictures on a distant sky,—
For a cunning little artist,
Is the fairy, "By-and-by."

"By-and-by," the wind is singing,
"By-and-by," the heart replies;
But the phantom just before us,
Ere we grasp, it ever flies.
List not to the idle charmer,
Scorn the very specious lie,
Only in the fancy liveth
This deceiver, "By-and-by."

—*Student and Schoolmate.*

For the Schoolmaster.

A Glance at South America.—No. 3.

THE AMAZON AND ORINOCO VALLEYS.

FROM the contiguity of the head waters of some of the tributaries of both rivers, the Orinoco valley may be considered a part of the Amazon basin. A brief description, therefore, of that portion occupied by the former river may not be out of place in this connection.

The Orinoco rises south of the Sierra del Parimè and taking, at first, a westerly direction, makes a circuit around the end of that mountain ridge. The valley proper may be divided into two parts, the upper and lower; the former being that part where the river forces its way among mountains, over rocks and precipices; the latter, after it emerges from its turbulent windings, into the great basin of South America.

After pursuing a westerly direction about two hundred miles, amid some of the wildest and most picturesque scenery imaginable, it arrives at San Fernando de Atabapo, where it receives the Atabapo and the Guaviare, a river as large as the Hudson. Its course is thence due north three degrees, where, in latitude $5^{\circ} 13'$ north and longitude $68^{\circ} 17'$ west, is the celebrated cataract of Maypures. The river here is seventeen hundred yards in width, and the cataract is formed of numerous islands filling up the bed of the river, and joined together by dikes of rock. Humboldt, ascending an overlooking rock, thus describes its appearance: "When one attains the summit of the rock, he suddenly sees a sheet of foam a mile in extent. Enormous masses of rock, of an iron blackness, emerge from its bosom, some of a mammillar

form, and grouped like basaltic hills; others resembling towers, castles and ruins. Their dark sides contrasts with the silvery whiteness of the foam. Every rock and islet is covered with tufts of stately trees. From the base of these prominences, as far as the eye can reach, there hangs over the river a dense mist, through which the tops of majestic palms are seen to penetrate. At every hour of the day this sheet of foam presents a different aspect. Sometimes the mountain isles and palms project their long shadows over it; sometimes the rays of the setting sun are separated in the humid cloud that covers the cataract, when colored arches form, vanish and reappear by turns."

Forty miles below this are the falls of Atures, which are no less picturesque and grand. Here the river seems to have exhausted its strength, for it now flows in a broad, sluggish stream, to the ocean.

The Meta, a large tributary of the Orinoco, rises in the Andes and is navigable to their very base. The Orinoco itself is navigable for large vessels over a thousand miles.

The lower valley is one extensive grassy plain, called, by the inhabitants, "Llanos." These plains are annually inundated by the rains and overflowing of the river. "The whole country," says Mrs. Somerville, "is as level as the sea." "It is possible," continues the same author, "to travel over these flat plains eleven hundred miles, from the delta of the Orinoco to the foot of the Andes of Pasto; frequently there is not an eminence a foot high in two hundred and seventy square miles."

"There are only two kinds of inequalities," says Humboldt, "the *bancos*, consisting of broken strata of sandstone or limestone, which stand four or five feet above the surface; and the *mesas*, composed of small flats, or convex mounds, rising gradually to the height of a few yards, so gradual that the inequality can only be detected by means of a levelling instrument."

After each inundation the banks of the rivers are covered with a luxuriant crop of grasses and flowers, but as the dry season advances the grass is burnt to powder and the air filled with the dust raised by currents of air, which sweep along the surface only about a dozen feet high, above which all is calm and clear. If a spark of fire should happen to touch the scorched plain a conflagration would instantly spread from river to river, destroying whatever was in its path, whether man, beast or vegetable, and leave the earth baked and sterile for years, or

until the annual rains could soak and crumble the hard surface into earth.

The quantity of rain which annually falls in these two basins is enormous, and Humboldt saw evident marks of inundations from forty to one hundred and thirty-eight feet in height. The average annual fall of rain is about one hundred and fifteen inches, or, for convenience, we will call it nine and a half feet. The area of the whole hydrographic basin is two millions, three hundred and fifty-two thousand square miles. Here we have a sea deep enough to float almost any of our river steamers, and covering a space two-thirds as large as the whole of Europe.

All this amount of water must have been taken up from the sea and land by evaporation and a consequent absorption of heat, and the same heat set free again at its condensation. Now, let us enter into a little calculation in regard to the quantity of heat absorbed and set free in the operation. According to Mr. Russell, of Scotland, the amount of heat evolved by the combustion of five millions tons of coal is sufficient to evaporate a pond of water one mile square and one foot deep. Now the heat requisite to raise a sea nine and-a-half feet deep and one mile square to vapor, must be nine and-a-half times five millions, or, the heat evolved from the combustion of forty-seven millions, five hundred thousand tons; and to evaporize the entire rain fall of the Amazon basin would require the heat from two millions three hundred and fifty thousand times forty-seven millions five hundred thousand tons of coal. The imagination is at once startled and overwhelmed by the magnitude of these numbers, and wonders whence comes so much heat, and the effects of its evolutions upon the atmosphere. A large proportion of it is undoubtedly radiated off into space, but enough comes back to earth to account for the humidity of the air, during the rainy seasons in those latitudes, being accompanied with such oppressive and enervating influences. All nature seems to partake, to some extent, of the excessive languor and listless inactivity which is peculiar to certain conditions of the atmosphere, and those conditions are found to prevail here more than in any other part of the globe.

By a very interesting series of experiments made at Memphis, Tennessee, by Lieut. Marr, of the United States army, and published in the Army Meteorological Register for 1865, it appears that only about one-seventh of the rain

goes to feed the springs, rivers and vegetation, while the remaining six-sevenths is taken up again as vapor. The air in the Amazon basin must evaporate more than that, because it is much warmer and has already held a much larger quantity of water in a state of vapor than the Mississippi valley, for while the rain fall is one hundred and fifteen inches in the former, it is only forty-nine in the latter. Assuming the evaporation to be in the same proportion in both instances, then the quantity of water evaporated in the Amazon basin amounts to three thousand six hundred and ninety-five cubic miles; and only six hundred and fourteen cubic miles of all this vast rain fall is carried off by the rivers or taken up by the vegetation. The heat required to reconvert into vapor this six-sevenths, which is not carried off or absorbed, is equal to the amount set free during the combustion of ninety-three trillion, three hundred ninety-one billion, six hundred thirty million tons of coal—more than is bottled away in all the coal mines in the world. Inasmuch as a large portion of the heat set free during condensation is radiated into space, it follows that the earth must supply the caloric requisite to make up the deficiency. This it does by radiating the heat received from the sun into its watery coverlet.

This may show the *capacity* of the climate for evaporation, rather than that which actually takes place, because these operations are only during about one-half the year, while the other half is parched by drouth. c.

FEMALE TEACHERS.—The war has drawn from the State a large proportion of the young men who have hitherto occupied the winter months in teaching the common schools in the country. The deficiency of male teachers, the coming winter, will impose upon many districts the necessity of employing females. The change thus temporarily required by the exigencies of the time, will probably become permanent. There is a growing disposition on the part of the community to enlarge the field of labor wherein women may secure for themselves an honorable and comfortable livelihood by their own exertions. Hitherto the groundless fear that they would be found incapable of governing the "big boys," and the inconvenience of getting about through the mud and snows of winter, have, in a great measure, debarred them from teaching except in summer; but we confidently predict that our common schools will not decline, either in discipline or

efficiency, under the new *regimen*. As practical results demonstrate the superior tact and skill of females in the education of the young, their employment in the school-room during the entire year, will undoubtedly become one of the fixed institutions of the land.—*Hartford Courant*.

The Free Schools of New York.

THE free schools which I visited in New York impressed me very favorably. The class-rooms are clean, convenient and very plainly furnished. The instruction is entirely gratuitous—everything, down to the pens and ink, being provided by the State. Education is not compulsory; but the demand for it is so great that, practically, a very small proportion of the children in the city fail to receive regular instruction, and the school benches are always more than filled. Judging from the entry-books of the school I looked over, the social standing of the children's parents would embrace every class, from the professional man with limited means, to the common artisan. The sole practical qualification appeared to be that the child's parents must be able to afford it a decent dress; and, in a city where rags are so uncommon as in New York, this qualification is nothing like so severe a one as it would be with us. The dresses of the pupils varied from silks and broadcloth to the commonest stuffs and velveteen—but they were all scrupulously clean. There is no religious instruction given, so that children of all sects come equally; but, at the commencement of the day's work, a few verses of the Bible are read, and, I believe, the Lord's Prayer is repeated. The teachers in all the classes, except two or three of the highest boys' classes are women. All of them struck me as intelligent, and many were very pretty and lady-like. Their salaries vary from about £50 to £100; and, as their work is finished by 3 p. m., the pay seems liberal enough. The average age of the girl-pupils is from seven to seventeen; that of the boys from seven to fifteen, after which the ablest boys are sent from the schools, to receive a classical education at the Free Academy. Reading, writing, ciphering, geography, grammar, history, book-keeping for the boys, and moral philosophy for the girls, were the staples of instruction; and I could not discover that any foreign language was attempted to be taught.

I came in to the classes as a casual visitor, and therefore saw the working of the system in its *every-day aspect*. The children apparently un-

derstood very well what they were taught. I know that I heard a number of those mysterious questions asked, about what the price of a silk dress would be, containing I am afraid to say how many yards and fractions of yards, supposing that three-elevenths and five-sevenths of a foot of silk cost so much. I believe that the answer was given rightly, and I am sure that the children explained very distinctly why they gave the answer which they did give. What struck me most, was the look of intelligence and the orderly behavior of the children. In some classes there were nearly fifty children, and yet the one mistress appeared to have no difficulty in maintaining order, almost without punishment of any kind. The highest class of girls were engaged, when I was taken to their class-room, in the study of what was called intellectual philosophy, and were set, in my presence, to discuss the theme, whether the imagination can create, or only combine. I admit freely that they talked as much nonsense as any score of young ladies—or boys too, for that matter—always do, when they begin discussing the question of innate ideas; but they obviously knew and understood all the stock common-places and appropriate illustrations which it is proper to quote upon the subject. The teacher was obviously a strong abolitionist in her views, and propounded a question to her class, whether a New England minister, who preached proslavery doctrines, *could* be right subjectively. Nine tenths of the class disposed of the question with more feeling than logic—by an enthusiastic negative. Indeed, the vote was unanimous, with the exception of one lazy, fat-looking girl, who had been amusing herself, during the discussion on innate ideas, by tickling her neighbor's neck with a pen, and who woke up at this question, with the remark, "Well, I guess he'd be about right anyhow." At these schools, by the way, colored children are not admitted.

Besides the State schools, there are several free public schools, kept up by voluntary contributions. The Roman Catholics have large schools, to which they try very hard to attract the children of their own creed, as they look with great, and from their own point of view not unfounded, jealousy on the free schools. The "House of Industry" schools, too, at the Five Points, which I went over, are chiefly maintained by the Episcopalians, and seem to be a very useful institution. Situated in the very lowest quarter of New York, they are designed

to educate children of a class too low to find admission elsewhere. They are, in truth, Ragged Schools; and, in order to induce the parents to let their children come, the school feeds them during school hours. In the classes I went through, there was scarcely a child born of American parents. There were representatives of almost every foreign nation, but the majority were Germans, Irish and Negroes; for the poor about the Five Points are too wretched to care for color. Of course very little can be taught to such a class of children, but still they learn to read and write, and, for children, sing beautifully. By these and similar schools, one-half of the "Arab" population in New York receive some kind of education, so that the proportion of the rising generation in this city which will grow up without any education is but small. In the other Free States, where there are not the great difficulties of an enormous city to contend with, the spread of education is even more universal than in New York. — *Three Weeks in New York,* by "E. D.," in *McMillan's Magazine*.

For the Schoolmaster.
An Appeal to Parents.

MR. EDITOR:—This number of THE SCHOOLMASTER will greet many of the Rhode Island teachers at the commencement of their winter labors. In view of this, I append the following, hoping that it will meet the eye, and receive the attention of those whom it is designed for.

SHUNOCK.

A TEACHER'S APPEAL TO THE PARENTS OF HIS PUPILS.

Respected Friends:—You have engaged me to take charge of your school and the education of your children for the coming winter. In view of this, it is necessary that a correct understanding subsist between us, so that your duties and my labors be not in vain. Will you, therefore, allow me, in a plain manner, to call your attention to a few particulars in which your cordial coöperation is earnestly solicited?

I. Will you consider the position that I occupy, and that I shall endeavor to act as your friend and your children's benefactor?

II. That you consider the great importance of sending your children to school constantly and seasonably. 1. If children are allowed to be absent they are taught to look upon their school and its duties as of quite secondary importance. 2. If they are absent they will fall

behind their classmates in their studies, lose much of their interest in them, and perhaps acquire an actual dislike for school and all its exercises. 3. If children are allowed to be tardy in their attendance at school they will be prone to undervalue punctuality in other affairs. 4. If they enter the school-room at a late hour they interrupt the order of the school and interfere with some passing exercise, in which, perhaps, they should have a part.

III. Encourage your children to respect and obey the requirements of their teacher. 1. Will you consider that I am called upon to control and instruct the collected families of the neighborhood. I have under my care a multitude whose home influences and discipline are widely different; yet they must be united and governed as one large family. 2. If you hear reports from your children, or otherwise, reflecting upon the management of the school, or the treatment of individual members, do not too readily confide in all you hear; but remember the somewhat trite saying, that "there are two sides to a question," and that "circumstances alter cases."

IV. Encourage your children to be studious, by manifesting an interest in their lessons. As you meet them at the close of the day, improve a few minutes in conversing with them respecting the manner in which they have spent the day. Do all in your power to inspire them with a love for knowledge as a source of gratification and improvement. Induce them to examine, to investigate, to think.

V. Improve every convenient occasion in visiting the school. In this way you can do much to stimulate and cheer your children and their teacher. An hour spent in the school-room will be as beneficial as to spend it in your business.

VI. Aid me in my endeavors to promote a spirit of kindness and manliness. Remember that your children will become just such men and women as you and their teachers shall make them.

Respectfully yours,

TEACHER.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN SCHOOL GIRLS.—Anthony Trollope, in his new book on America, thus speaks of our school girls:—"I do not know any contrast that would be more surprising to an Englishman, up to that moment ignorant of the matter, than that which he would find by visiting, first of all, a free school in London, and then a free school in New York. The

female pupil at a free school in London, as a rule, is either a ragged pauper or a charity girl; if not degraded, at least stigmatized by the badges and dress of the charity. We Englishmen know well the type of each, and have a fairly correct idea of the amount of education which is imparted to them. We see the result afterwards when the same girls become our servants, and the wives of our grooms and porters. The female pupil at a free school in New York is neither a pauper nor a charity girl. She is dressed with utmost decency. She is perfectly cleanly. In speaking to her you cannot in any degree guess whether her father has a dollar a day or three thousand dollars a year. Nor will you be enabled to guess by the manner in which her associates treat her. As regards her own manner to you, it is always the same as though her father were, in all respects, your equal."

From the Massachusetts Teacher.
American Institute of Instruction.

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The President responded in a happy manner, and Hartford as a *City*, and Connecticut as a *State*, having shaken hands with the American Institute, and the American Institute having shaken hands with the *City* and *State*, the Institute proceeded to business.

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Prof. Greene, of Providence, thought the real defect in teaching grammar was, in not making pupils realize what they study. It is easy to learn, for instance, what the text-books say about number in grammar, but the lesson on this should be a living one — illustrated until there is in the pupil's mind a perfect understanding of what number essentially is in language. The teacher needs text-books, but he needs to use them well.

Dr. Woolworth, of Albany, N. Y., Secretary of the Board of Regents of the University, believed in Murray's definition of grammar, that it is "the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly," and this art is taught at first through mother, nurse and teacher. It should be their business to talk correctly and well; afterward it would be well to study grammar as the science of language.

Mr. Benedict, of New York City, was in favor of committing the old, well-tried rules and formulas to memory. Murray's definition of English grammar is a landmark. It is something never to be forgotten, and something which cannot be improved. Who would think of re-writing the propositions of Euclid? No one. They have been prepared with the greatest precision of language and logical accuracy. After these rules, formulas, etc., have been committed to memory, it is the duty of the teacher to see that the pupil understands them, and this he should be at liberty to effect in his own

female pupil at a free school in London, as a rule, is either a ragged pauper or a charity girl; if not degraded, at least stigmatised by the badges and dress of the charity. We Englishmen know well the type of each, and have a fairly correct idea of the amount of education which is imparted to them. We see the result afterwards when the same girls become our servants, and the wives of our grooms and porters. The female pupil at a free school in New York is neither a pauper nor a charity girl. She is dressed with utmost decency. She is perfectly cleanly. In speaking to her you cannot in any degree guess whether her father has a dollar a day or three thousand dollars a year. Nor will you be enabled to guess by the manner in which her associates treat her. As regards her own manner to you, it is always the same as though her father were, in all respects, your equal."

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Prof. Greene, of Providence, thought the real defect in teaching grammar was, in not making pupils realize what they study. It is easy to learn, for instance, what the text-books say about number in grammar, but the lesson on this should be a living one — illustrated until there is in the pupil's mind a perfect understanding of what number essentially is in language. The teacher needs text-books, but he needs to use them well.

Dr. Woolworth, of Albany, N. Y., Secretary of the Board of Regents of the University, believed in Murray's definition of grammar, that it is "the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly," and this art is taught at first through mother, nurse and teacher. It should be their business to talk correctly and well; afterward it would be well to study grammar as the science of language.

Mr. Benedict, of New York City, was in favor of committing the old, well-tried rules and formulas to memory. Murray's definition of English grammar is a landmark. It is something never to be forgotten, and something which cannot be improved. Who would think of re-writing the propositions of Euclid? No one. They have been prepared with the greatest precision of language and logical accuracy. After these rules, formulas, etc., have been committed to memory, it is the duty of the teacher to see that the pupil understands them, and this he should be at liberty to effect in his own

way. It is impossible to get these rules and formulas, which he deemed essential to an available and reliable education, without good textbooks. If he were going to teach either geography or grammar, he would teach them and not something else, beginning to teach a science by teaching related sciences.

The morning session was brought to a close by a lecture from Joshua Kendall, A. M., Principal of the Rhode Island State Normal School.

In the afternoon a lecture was delivered by Major Gen. William H. Russell, of New Haven, Ct. The aim of the lecture was to exhibit and enforce the advantages of a military system of education. He introduced his lecture by an allusion to the looseness of the management of a pupil's time in most of our schools,—the ease with which apologies from parents were put instead of time spent in the school-room, and the universal lack of punctuality in school matters. There was not only a lack of punctuality, but a lack of exactness in almost everything. The inexactness would be remedied by definiteness of aim. We should teach the boy to be and to do what the world will require of him to be and to do. We need, too, more earnestness and honesty in our moral definitions and teaching. We are lax everywhere, and need not only more punctuality, exactness, and more honest morals, but the enthronement of rightful authority. After enlarging upon these themes, of which we are able to give only the most incomplete hints, Mr. Russell brought forward military schools as not only better in the matter of punctuality, but as better in all general and particular accuracy than any other. West Point secures greater accuracy than any other institution in the country. The government of the institution is more efficient. It has its will, which is law, and that law is enforced. Nowhere else can you hear in the college the word of command, unmodified by the political element; and it is worth one's while to go there once to hear it. The difference between West Point as a self-governing institution, so far as reporting delinquencies among the students, by the students, is concerned, and other institutions, was shown. At West Point, the officer of the day, taken from the students, is, for the time, put upon his honor and does his duty, and no one finds fault; while a university with which he was acquainted was absolutely defeated by the students themselves, in the endeavor to maintain a monitorial system. We establish our colleges to do good generally, without any

specific aim. The military institution drives to a single definite result. Still we must remember that war is not the business of the world, but only the means by which the arts of peace are pursued and secured.

The programme fixed a discussion to follow the address. Subject: "Ought Military Instruction to be generally introduced into our Schools?" Mr. Philbrick, of Boston, said that the present generation had been reared in profound peace. The war spirit evoked by the old French and Indian wars, and by the long war of the Revolution, had died out. Peace societies had been organized, which had not only persistently denounced war, but ridiculed military training. In our Northern States it was almost as much as a man's reputation was worth to belong to a military company. We were all devoted to the arts of peace and the accumulation and enjoyment of money. We were all unprepared to enter upon the most terrible military conflict the world has ever known. We find ourselves obliged to go into the war with the smallest stock of military talent. He would not stop to calculate the thousands of lives lost and the millions of treasure already sacrificed, in consequence of our lack of military knowledge as a people. And now we know that, however this rebellion may result, this generation will necessarily cultivate the military art. Now, what is meant by a military education? There are two kinds, or grades. The first is for the rank and file, and consists mostly in physical training. The second is for those in command. The officer must be trained upon a broad, scientific basis. What have common schools or the regular run of educational institutions to do with this? Nothing, in his judgment. The officers will continue to be educated in military schools, while the common soldiers will be educated for their duty in the camp. The most of the teachers of our schools are women, and they cannot handle arms or teach the manual. Moreover, he thought that punctuality and exactness could be secured without military training, provided they existed in the teacher, and unless they did exist in the teacher, nothing could be done with a military system.

In the evening, the Institute met to hear a lecture from the Rev. Mr. Richardson, of Worcester. His subject was, "Popular Education as related to Nationality." The evening exercises were closed by the congregational singing of "America."

THIRD DAY—FRIDAY.

William D. Ticknor, of Boston, Treasurer, read his annual report, showing a balance of \$239.20 to the credit of the Institute.

The discussion of military education was resumed, speakers being confined to five minutes.

Gideon F. Thayer, of Keene, N. H., opposed the introduction of the subject into our public schools. Mr. Allen, of Newton, agreed with the first speaker. Mr. Northend, of New Britain, Ct., spoke against the introduction of military education into our schools. Some new thing, he said, is continually offered to the Institute for adoption. Mr. Bulkley, of Brooklyn, argued that military education is demoralizing. Mr. Wetherell, of Boston, spoke against it; as did Messrs. Parish, of Springfield; Northrop, of Massachusetts; Allen, of Pennsylvania; Jones, of Roxbury; Allen, of Newton; Adams, of Boston; and Rev. Mr. Trask, of Fitchburg. Mr. Greenleaf, of Brooklyn, N. Y., rather favored the introduction of the military element into the school system. Messrs. Sawyer, of New Hampshire, Woolworth, of New York, and Dr. Lewis, of Boston, also opposed the introduction of military education into our schools.

Here the subject was laid on the table by a vote of the Institute. The views presented by Mr. Russell, in his lecture yesterday were severely handled by the speakers generally. There was a most thorough and unanimous dissent from the notion of introducing military tactics into the public schools. It was urged that the tendency of such an innovation would tend to the essential demoralization of the young.

A lecture on the "Progress of Learning in Europe," was then read by L. W. Grandgent, of the Mayhew School of Boston. In tracing the history of the subject, he stated that Ireland was the seat of learned men of Western Europe from the third to the ninth century. Oxford University and Cambridge University were founded subsequently in England. At the beginning of the ninth century knowledge was revived. Thus the lecturer traced his subject down to the present day.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The following officers were unanimously elected:

President—A. P. Stone, Plymouth, Mass.

Vice-Presidents—Samuel Pettes, Roxbury, Mass.; Barnas Sears, Providence, R. I.; Gideon F. Thayer, Boston, Mass.; Benjamin Green-

leaf, Bradford, Mass.; William Russell, Lancaster, Mass.; Henry Barnard, Hartford, Ct.; William H. Wells, Chicago, Ill.; Alfred Greenleaf, Brooklyn, N. Y.; William D. Swan, Boston, Mass.; Charles Northend, New Britain, Conn.; Samuel S. Greene, Providence, R. I.; Ariel Parish, Springfield, Mass.; Leander Wetherell, Boston, Mass.; George B. Emerson, Boston, Mass.; Nathan Hedges, Newark, N. J.; Zalmon Richards, Washington, D. C.; John W. Bulkley, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Thomas Sherwin, Boston, Mass.; Jacob Batchelder, Salem, Mass.; George S. Boutwell, Groton, Mass.; John Kingsbury, Providence, R. I.; George Allen, Jr., Boston, Mass.; Charles Hammond, Groton, Mass.; D. N. Camp, New Britain, Ct.; J. D. Philbrick, Boston, Mass.; Joshua Bates, Boston, Mass.; Anson Smyth, Columbus, Ohio; Alpheus Crosby, Salem, Mass.; Ebenezer Hervey, New Bedford, Mass.; B. G. Northrop, Framingham, Mass.; George F. Phelps, New Haven, Conn.; John C. Pelton, San Francisco, Cal.; Henry E. Sawyer, Concord, N. H.; William F. Phelps, Trenton, N. J.; J. Escobar, Mexico; E. P. Weston, Gorham, Me.; E. F. Strong, Bridgeport, Conn.; D. B. Hagar, Jamaica Plain, Mass.; Hiram Orcutt, West Brattleboro, Vt.; B. B. Whittemore, Norwich, Ct.; Daniel Leach, Providence, R. I.; Samuel B. Woolworth, Albany, N. Y.

Recording Secretary—Samuel W. Mason, Boston, Mass.

Corresponding Secretaries—B. W. Putnam, Boston, Mass.; John Kneeland, Roxbury, Mass.

Treasurer—William D. Ticknor, Boston, Mass.

Curators—Nathan Metcalf, Boston, Mass.; Samuel Swan, Boston, Mass.; J. E. Horr, Brookline, Mass.

Censors—William T. Adams, Boston, Mass.; James A. Page, Boston, Mass.; C. Goodwin Clark, Boston, Mass.

Counsellors—Daniel Mansfield, Cambridge, Mass.; Charles Hutchins, Boston, Mass.; J. W. Allen, Norwich, Conn.; George N. Bigelow, Framingham, Mass.; Richard Edwards, Bloomington, Ill.; T. W. Valentine, Brooklyn, N. Y.; J. E. Littlefield, Bangor, Me.; Moses T. Brown, Toledo, Ohio; Henry L. Boltwood, Lawrence, Mass.; Joseph White, Williamstown, Mass.; George T. Littlefield, Somerville, Mass.; William E. Sheldon, West Newton, Mass.

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. P. CADY, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Peep into the Dook.—No. 9.

THERE are some other interesting facts respecting the *Teredo*. Not among the least of these is the existence of the Thames tunnel, one of the most remarkable works of modern times. The convenience and utility of such a structure had been thought of, and its practicability had been discussed previous to the close of the last century. In fact, some attempts had been made to carry an excavation beneath the river below London bridge. One was projected at Gravesend in 1799, but was soon abandoned. It was a formidable undertaking to pass so far down towards the bowels of the earth and find a safe passage beneath the volume of water rolling along the muddy floor overhead. More than a thousand feet must be traversed, beneath the bed of the river and its soggy banks, to make the passage. How can the way be opened? What shall save those from destruction who shall make the perilous attempt? If they finally pierce through from bank to bank, who will dare to follow? What walls and roof can be constructed that shall promise sufficient security to tempt the countless feet that throng the busy streets above to pursue a way which leads beneath both earth and flood?

A very wise man, as we all know, once said, "Go to the aunt, thou sluggard, and learn to be wise." I will leave "polemics" to decide whence should come the inspired mandate that should direct reasoning man to a still lower and less intelligent class of the animal creation, in search of wisdom. But it is affirmed that Brunel, the successful architect of the Thames tunnel, caught his first idea of its structure from a humble and hated mollusk. He accepted the *Teredo* as his teacher. The calcareous tube left behind by the slender and soft-bodied "borer" in its progress, afforded just the hint needed by the engineer. A successful plan was now adopted. In 1804 an attempt had been made; but when the workmen had advanced more than nine hundred feet, the obstacles to further progress became insurmountable.

In 1823 the plan developed from the lesson of the Ship-worm was adopted, and proved successful. At the distance of one hundred and fifty feet from the river a cylinder of brick-work, fifty feet in diameter, was sunk vertically into the ground to the depth of sixty-five feet, and a shaft, twenty-five feet in diameter, was sunk still lower, to serve as a well, from which the water, as it flowed in, was removed by a steam engine located upon the top of the cylinder. At the depth of sixty-three feet the lateral excavation of the tunnel was com-

menced, with a downward slope of two and one-quarter feet to the one hundred, so as to ensure a sufficient thickness of earth between the roof of the tunnel and the bed of the river. A strong "shield" of iron, consisting of twelve frames placed side by side, was so adjusted that the workmen could stand upon platforms at different heights and remove the mud in front of them, by means of screw-rods. When the mud had thus been removed in front, to the distance of from three to six inches, the shield was pressed forward, and the work was secured behind by constructing a tube of brick laid in Roman cement. Thus the imitation of the *Teredo* was as nearly perfect as the case would permit; and thus was constructed the famous tunnel, twenty-two feet high and thirty-eight in breadth, seventy-six feet below high-water mark, consisting of a double arch-way, containing carriage roads, flanked by paths for foot passengers, safe and commodious,—an object of curiosity to visitors from every quarter of the globe, and at once a proud and enduring monument of the genius of its architect, and a perpetual monitor of what may be learned from the humblest of the works of the Creator to subserve the convenience and the wants of man.

Some years since I made some inquiries in regard to the "Ship-worm," of an intelligent ship-builder, who claimed to understand the subject upon which he was speaking. It was his opinion that the worms are generated in the solid wood, as he asserted that timbers were often found to be eaten to a mere honey-comb, without showing any signs of depredation on the surface. This circumstance of destruction without any external evidence is alluded to in the work of Dr. Buckland, and is accounted for by the fact that the worms are very minute in the earlier stages of their existence, and like some other creatures, the *Duck Barnacle*, for instance, as mentioned by Prof. Agassiz, possessing free powers of locomotion, although subsequently fixed in a habitation which they are unable to leave. Making their entrance at this stage of their being, the punctures made by them are so small as to escape observation, and very naturally lead to the mistake made by my ship-building informant. It is also stated in the work of Dr. Buckland, in the quotation previously mentioned, that the *Teredo* is sometimes introduced to his final home by the *Limnoria terebrans*, or gribble worm, which sustains to the *Teredo* the same relation as that of the jackall to the lion. "The gribble first bores in and destroys the wood around. The *Teredo* then finds an entry and destruction follows." And this destruction is sometimes enormous. I quote again from Buckland: "It has been estimated that at Plymouth and Devonport alone the boring-worms have in one year damaged government works to the amount of eight thousand pounds. In 1731-2 they committed such ravages in the piles forming the sea-defences of Hol-

land that the Dutch were seriously alarmed." But these destructive powers also sometimes subserve other purposes as important as that of tunnelling beneath the river Thames. This is the case where navigation is impeded by trees and drift-wood, as it sometimes is at the mouths of rivers. Within a few months the obstructing materials are riddled by the borers and crumbled piecemeal and carried away by the rushing tides. Wrecks of vessels, which might remain permanent obstructions in harbors and elsewhere, are also soon made to disappear before the armies of the *Teredo*.

The *Pholadidae*, (*Piddocks* or *Date-fish*), in some respects resemble the Ship-worms. They are smaller, rarely attaining more than one-fifth the length of the *Teredo*. I transcribe the following from the Smithsonian Report: "The Piddocks have white shells; generally very thin, but strong and adorned with rasp-like sculpture. As this sculpture is for the most part turned toward the aperture it cannot be much used for excavating hollows. The naturalist who took the trouble to bore a hole with the shell could do so most easily if he turned the shell the wrong way in. As stated before, the stout club-shaped foot is probably the principal instrument of abrasion. This is fixed by strong muscles to the shell, which has no articulated hinge and ligament, like other bivalves, but is strengthened by a spoon-shaped process, curling up from within the beaks. The shells gape all round except at a point before and behind, and the vacant places are generally covered, in the adult, by accessory plates. They are phosphorescent, living by their own light; and are often eaten as a delicacy."

There seems, however, to be some discrepancy of opinion respecting the mode in which the *Pholas* makes its excavation. It is sufficiently wonderful that a creature of its structure should make excavations at all, when we consider that it makes its way into solid stone, literally chiselling or boring out a cavern for its home, in the unyielding rock. Dr. Hartwig, in his work entitled, "The Sea and its Living Wonders," says: "The *Pholades* secrete a corrosive juice capable of dissolving calcareous rocks. With the assistance of this secretion and the action of its sharp-edged valves, the *Pholas* forms a pear-shaped cavern in which it is condemned to pass its whole life. The thicker part of the body, consisting principally of the very short but strong foot, fills the broad base of the hollow, while the long syphon is turned towards the narrow opening, from which it may be protruded at pleasure. All the movements of the animal are confined to rising and falling in its narrow prison."

Buckland, in the volume from which I have already quoted, devotes considerable space to the discussion of the method of excavation employed by the *Pholas*. He says: "There is a large flat surface of chalk to be seen, at low tide, to the east

of Brighton, perfectly riddled with the holes made by these creatures. If an empty hole be examined it will be found covered with markings, as though some instrument or acid had been at work. Now, it is this very point which has set those interested in the subject at loggerheads; but while they are arguing and disputing, the *Pholas* quietly goes on working away, making a comfortable hole for himself. On the whole, however, the jury seem inclined to bring the *Pholas* in guilty of mechanical, not chemical violence, inasmuch as there is no acid found, or other solvent known, that will act equally well upon wood, limestone, hard and soft clays, sandstone, and even, in one case, upon wax; it is also highly improbable that an animal can secrete a solvent for each and every substance in which he may feel desirous to hide his head." He also cites the opinion of a writer in the "Annals of Natural History," who claims that the boring apparatus of the *Pholas* has particles of siliceous or flint imbedded in the boring surface, which, being held closely to the bottom of the cavity by the adhesion of the foot, enables the animal to make its way by rubbing the surface it wishes to penetrate. The difficulty in this case seems to be that such particles are revealed neither by chemical manipulation nor microscopic observation. He quotes the opinion of his father in favor of the hypothesis that these creatures, notwithstanding the fact that they penetrate sandstones so hard as to be broken with difficulty by the hammer, with their "fragile and paper-like shells," make their holes by mechanical action; and after stating the probability that they fix themselves in the place where they wish to find a home by attaching their foot, like the leather sucker used by school-boys to lift stones for amusement, to the spot, and then cutting its way by means of rows of projections on the edges of its shell "exactly" like those "on the rough surface of a farrier's file," he quotes, at length, the statement of a gentleman who, he says "was fortunate enough to see the *Pholas* actually at work." From this I extract the following, in confirmation of the hypothesis of Dr. Buckland:

"Having procured several of these mollusks in pieces of timber, I extracted one and placed it loose in my aquarium, in the vague hope that it would perforate some sandstone on which I had placed it. It possessed the powers of locomotion, but made no attempt to bore. I then cut a piece of wood from the timber in which it had been found, and placed the *Pholas* in a hole a little more than an inch deep. Its shell being about two inches long, this arrangement left about an inch and three-quarters exposed. After a short time, the animal attached its foot to the bottom of the hole and commenced swaying itself from side to side, until the hole was sufficiently deep to allow it to proceed in the following manner: It inflated itself with water, apparently to the fullest extent, raising its shell upwards from the hole;

then holding by its muscular foot, it drew its shell gradually downwards. This would have produced a perpendicular and very inefficient action but for a wise provision of Nature. The edges of the valves are not joined together but are connected by a membrane; and instead of being joined at the hinge, like ordinary bivalves, they possess an extra plate attached to each valve of the shell, which is necessary for the following part of the operation: In the action of boring, this mollusk, having expanded itself with water, draws down its shell within the hole, gradually closing the anterior edges until they almost touch. It then raises its shell upwards, gradually opening the lower anterior edges and closing the upper, thus boring both upwards and downwards. The points on the shells are placed in rows, like the teeth of a saw; those toward the lower part being sharp and pointed, while those above, being useless, are not renewed."

Thus he accounts for the boring of these animals, and endeavors still further, to account for the peculiar shape of their cells by the assertion that they enter when small, and after making for themselves a comfortable habitation, that they cease boring except for the purpose of enlarging their cells to accommodate their own increasing size. This is probably the true explanation. And if it seem wonderful, what shall we say when it is asserted that some species of land-snails also perforate stone? Yet the elder Dr. Buckland only queried whether these last made their excavations by secreting an acid, or by means of their rasp-like tongues.

I. F. C.

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster.

Grammar.—Oral Examination.

Teacher, What is Syntax.

Pupil. It is that part of grammar which treats of the construction of sentences.

T. Define "treats."

P. It means *speaks of*, discourses upon with a view to instruct.

T. Define "construction" as a general term.

P. It is the fitting together of parts, according to rule or measurement, to form a perfect whole. Thus: the construction of a machine is the orderly arrangement or fitting together of its several parts, according to the practice of a wise mechanic.

T. Define "construction" as a grammatical term.

P. It is the putting together of elements in a

sentence according to the practice of good writers and speakers.

T. If the proper construction of sentences is controlled by the practice of the best writers and speakers, why the necessity of a book upon the subject?

P. Grammarians do not originate the forms of language, but they simply place within the reach of all, their critical observations of its use and the results of their study of it as a science. We should know but little of geography if our knowledge of it depended upon our own actual travel and observation, so we should have but little critical knowledge of the construction of language unless it were reduced to a system of study. Grammar does not control language, but language controls grammar. For instance, the Latin is a *dead* language, hence the best grammar of that language *to-day* will be the best for all time; but the English is a *living, progressive* language, hence the grammar of that language which is now the best will not answer for all time, for the progress of the language will compel its revision.

T. Who are to be considered the best speakers and writers of a language?

P. Those who have given it the best and the most study, under the most favorable circumstances; and they are pointed out by no fixed rule, but by general consent.

T. What are the elements of a sentence?

P. They are words.

T. What is an element?

P. It is a simple part of anything, or a part that does not require analyzing.

T. What is a sentence?

P. It is an expression of a thought in words.

T. What is an idea?

P. It is an element of a thought.

T. A thought, then, necessarily embraces how many ideas?

P. Two; that of which we think, and that which we think of it. These ideas united constitute a thought, and the thought expressed in words is a sentence.

T. What is the difference between a thought and its expression?

P. A thought is mental action, its expression is the means by which that action is made known.

T. What are the common methods of expressing our thoughts?

P. By vocal sounds and by writing. Sometimes by signs, gestures, position, paintings, &c.

T. How could a man inform us he had been bitten by a dog?

P. He could do it by presenting to us a painting in which he is himself represented to the life, followed by a dog with angry eye and bristling hair, and holding between his teeth the unfortunate man's leg. Or, he could do it by simply saying, in our language, the words, "I have been bitten by a dog." The picture would be the more

universal language, as everybody could understand it.

T. What, then, are words?

P. Words are the picture of our thoughts, and serve to give other men a knowledge of the objects which are present to our minds, and of the judgment we form concerning them.

T. What might a beautiful statue or painting be called?

P. An embodiment of thought, for it is but a copy of that which existed in the mind of the sculptor or artist before the rough block of marble was touched or the pencil was drawn upon the canvas.

T. What is analysis?

P. It is the examination of the elements of anything.

T. If each idea of a thought be expressed by a single word, how would the sentence be properly analyzed?

P. By examining its separate words.

T. Is each idea of a thought always expressed by a single word?

P. It is not.

T. Give a sentence containing as many words as it expresses ideas.

P. James walks rapidly. The word "James" represents the idea of a person; "walks," of what he does; and "rapidly," of *how* he does it.

T. Give several such sentences.

P. —.

T. Give a sentence containing more words than it expresses ideas.

P. Mary, who has a sweet temper, sings because there is music in her soul. "Mary" expresses the idea of a person; "who has a sweet temper" represents the idea of her disposition; and "because there is music in her soul," of *why* she sings.

T. In analyzing a sentence we must be governed by what?

P. Either by its ideas or by its words. If governed by its *ideas*, the sentence is considered *logically*; if by its *words*, it is considered *grammatically*.

T. Analyze the following sentence grammatically: "They might have completed the task if they had been faithful."

P. "They" is a personal pronoun, standing for the names of some persons not designated, and represents those of whom something is asserted. "Might" is an auxiliary verb, denoting power or ability. "Have" is an auxiliary verb, it denotes present time, is a sign of completed action, and asserts a thing as actual; hence, "might have" asserts past ability. "Completed" is the past, active participle of the verb "complete"; it denotes a finished or perfect act; hence "might have completed" is in the past perfect tense, potential mode, active voice. "The" is a definite article. It points to *some particular thing known to the*

speaker or writer, but not necessarily to the hearer or reader without further description. "Task" is a common noun, it denotes the thing or object that might have been completed. "If" is a subordinate connective, expressing doubt or condition. "Had" is an auxiliary verb, it denotes past time, and is a sign of completion. "Been" is the past participle of the verb *to be*, and is used to denote completion; hence "had been" denotes completion in past time, and of itself asserts a thing as actual, but under the influence of "if" asserts a thing as conditional; hence "had been" is of the past perfect tense, subjunctive mode. "Faithful" is an adjective denoting the quality of faithfulness; which, under the influence of "if," is implied as not belonging to, or, at least, not exercised by the persons represented by "they," though grammatically it is disposed of as belonging to "they," it being used with the copula "had been" to complete the predicate of the subordinate clause.

T. In the same manner analyze the following: "Pupils of industrious habits will make satisfactory progress."

P. "Pupils" is a common noun, it represents the idea of learners and also those of whom something is asserted. "Of" is a preposition and denotes the relation of possession or ownership between "pupils" and "habits"; denoting, though not asserting, that pupils possess habits. "Industrious" is a qualifying adjective, and is added directly to the word "habits," denoting the kind of habits. "Habits" is a common noun, and under the influence of the connective "of" and the adjective "industrious," denotes that which is possessed by "pupils." "Will" is an auxiliary verb, it denotes future time and asserts a thing as actual. "Make" is a principal verb, it asserts a thing as actual, and of itself denotes present time, but under the influence of "will," denotes future time; hence, "will make" is of the future tense, indicative mode. "Satisfactory" is an adjective, and denotes the kind of progress that will be made. "Progress" is a common noun, and under the influence of "satisfactory," denotes that which the pupils will make.

T. How is a sentence completely analyzed?

P. By considering it first as a unit,—stating whether it is simple, complex or compound; declarative, imperative, exclamatory or interrogative:—second, by pointing out the words and groups of words expressing the ideas of the thought;—and third, by giving the peculiar office of each word.

T. What is a declarative sentence? an imperative sentence? an exclamatory sentence? an interrogative sentence? a mixed sentence? Give examples of each.

P. —.

T. For what are questions asked?

P. To obtain information or to gain the assent of others. The latter are questions of appeal, and

are used with the negative when the speaker expects an affirmative answer, and without it when he expects a negative answer. A direct interrogative sentence is introduced without an interrogative word, may be answered by yes or no, and is generally uttered with the rising inflection at the close. An indirect interrogative sentence is introduced by some one of the interrogative words, is answered by some part of a declarative sentence, and is uttered with the falling inflection at the close.

T. What is a proposition?

P. It is the asserted union of a subject with some attribute of it. The union is asserted by some form of the verb *to be*, called the *copula*. The copula and attribute together form the *predicate*. The copula simply asserts the existence of the subject and its connection with some attribute. The attribute is the word or group of words that expresses some *quality* or *action* of the subject, or that denotes its *state*, *place*, or the *class* of objects to which it belongs. When the copula does not appear by itself, it is united with the attribute in a single word forming an *attributive verb*.

The peach is mellow. "Mellow" is an attribute of *quality*. Clouds are floating. "Floating" is an attribute of *action*. John is sleeping. The team is in use. "Sleeping" and "in use" are attributes of *state* or *condition*. The book is on the table. "On table" is an attribute of *place*. Gold is metal. "Metal" is an attribute of *class*. Birds fly. "Fly" is an *attributive verb*.

T. No attribute can be predicated or denied of a subject without forming a sentence. Assume the attributes of *color*, *size*, *shape*, *material* and *quality* of the object *house*. Predicate the same attributes.

P. ———.

T. Is a proposition necessarily a sentence? When is it a sentence and when is it not? Give examples. United propositions are how divided? Define *principal*, *subordinate*, *attribute*. What is a principal proposition? a subordinate proposition? similar propositions? a coordinate connective? a subordinate connective? What are the elements of a sentence? What is understood by the *rank* of an element? Elements of what ranks are to be considered as sentence-elements? An element from its *nature* may be what? from its *rank* what? from its *form* what? from its *structure* what? An element in any of its forms is *substantive* when? is *adjective* when? is *adverbial* when? *principal* when? *subordinate* when? What construction may a *noun* have? an *adjective* have? an *adverb*? An element has the *word form* when? *phrase form* when? *clause form* when? An element is in its structure *simple* when? *complex* when? *compound* when? Adjective elements of the word form have what position with reference to the nouns they modify? those of the phrase and clause form are placed where? What is the difference

between elements of the first, second and third classes, and *sentence-elements* of the same class? Give sentences containing elements of each class that are not *sentence-elements*.

The component parts of a sentence may be divided into two classes,—materials and connectives. The *materials* are those parts that express the ideas, and embrace the nouns, pronouns, substantive phrases and clauses and the pronominal value of the relatives; the adjectives of all kinds and the participle; the adverb, adverbial phrases and clauses and the adverbial value of the conjunctive-adverb. The *connectives* embrace the conjunctions, prepositions, copula, conjunctive values of the relatives and conjunctive-adverbs.

EXTENSION AND COMPREHENSION OF NOUNS.

T. Explain what is meant by the extension and comprehension of nouns.

P. The extension of a noun signifies the number of individuals or classes of beings it embraces or covers. The comprehension of a noun is the number of particular ideas it covers.

"Being" is a word that embraces or extends to every species of existence. It comprehends but one idea,—simply that of existence.

"Animal" is a word that embraces every species of animal existence,—that is, beings endowed with life and the power of voluntary motion. It comprehends several particular ideas in addition to that of existence; hence, it has a greater comprehension and less extension than the word "being."

"Quadruped" is a word that extends only to those animal existences that move upon four feet. It comprehends more ideas than the word "animal," but has less extension.

"Horse" is a word that extends to a less number of animals than the word "quadruped," but it comprehends all the particular ideas of the peculiar form which distinguishes the horse from the other species of quadrupeds.

T. Analyze the following sentence: "The large, beautiful, white horse which is young and gentle, and which belonged to John Smith, was sold yesterday, on the bridge, at noon, just as the cars arrived from New York, for three hundred dollars."

P. It is a complex, declarative sentence; complex because it contains a plural number of propositions and only one of which is independent; declarative because it declares something as real and absolute.

"Horse" is the grammatical subject, it represents that of which something is asserted.

"Horse," under the influence of "the," is used in a limited sense, the speaker or writer having in mind some particular horse which he intends more fully to describe, or of which alone he intends to assert something.

"Horse," under the influence of "the" and "white," not only excludes from consideration all

other horses but a particular one, but presents for our consideration the idea of color.

"Horse," under the additional influence of "beautiful," presents for our study all those forms of proportion which combine to make up the idea of beauty.

"Horse," under the influence of "large," presents for our consideration the idea of size.

"Horse," under the influence of "which is young and gentle," also of "which belonged to John Smith," presents for our consideration the idea of his age and disposition, also of ownership.

"Horse," with these modifying words and clauses, is the complex subject.

"Was" is the past tense of the auxiliary *to be*. It denotes past time, and asserts a thing as actual. "Sold" is the past passive participle of the transitive verb *sell*, it denotes completed action, and with "was," represents the reception of an act in the past. Hence, "was sold" is of the past tense, indicative mode, passive voice, and is the grammatical predicate of the sentence.

"Was sold," under the influence of "yesterday," asserts the day of the action; and, under the influence of "on the bridge," declares the place of the action; and under the influence of "at noon," asserts the time of the day when the action occurred; and the clause, "just as the cars arrived from New York," simply denotes a circumstance that took place at the time of the action; and "was sold," under the influence of "for three hundred dollars," declares the sum received or bargained for at the time of the action.

"Is," the copulative parts of "belonged" and "arrived," and "was" are also connectives.

"Was sold," with these modifying words, phrases and clauses, is the complex predicate.

"And" is a coordinate conjunction, and connects the adjective clauses,—"*Which is young and gentle*" and "*Which belonged to John Smith*." It also connects "young" and "gentle."

The adjective clauses are connected with "Horse" by the connective of relative value of "which." The other subordinate connectives are "on," "at," "as" and "for"; they connect the elements of which they form a part to "was sold."

T. Construct a sentence having "reason" for the subject.

P. Reason guides.

T. Limit the subject by a complex adjective element, first class, the basis of which shall be a *participle* limited by three complex adverbial elements of the second class.

P. Reason cultivated with great care, for many years, under the most favorable circumstances, guides.

T. Limit the predicate by an objective element of the first class, and by three adverbial elements of the second class.

P. Guides man in his path through life in all his doubts and difficulties.

Mathematics.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to N. W. DEMUNN, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster.

Principles Employed in Finding the Cube Root.

See "Arithmetical Puzzle," in May Number of THE SCHOOLMASTER.

1. Every "period" in a perfect cube gives one figure in the root.

2. The highest root of the first and of the last period gives the first and last figures of the root required, as is easily seen in the algebraic formula, $\sqrt[3]{(a^3 \mp 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3)} \doteq a \pm b$.

3. Since the number cubed is always a multiple of 11 consisting of three figures, the first and last figures of the root being known, the middle one is found from this property of such multiples, viz.: that the sum of the first and last equals the middle, unless the sum is above 10, when the first number must be diminished by 1 before being added to the last. The reason is obvious. Thus let 4 and 3 be the first and last figures in a multiple of 11 consisting of three figures, the middle figure will be 7, the number 478. If 7 and 8 are the numbers, then $6 + 8 = 14$, and the number required is 748, the 10 of the 14 being restored to the 6.

4. The cubes of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 end in the same figures respectively. The cube of 2 ends in 8, of 3 in 2, of 4 in 4, of 5 in 5, of 6 in 6, of 7 in 3, of 8 in 2, and 9, even numbers, and 3 and 7, odd numbers, exchanging, so that the root of the last period can be determined in a moment by knowing only the last figure.

4. A multiple of a number remains a multiple of it, when divided by any other number than that number or a multiple of it.

6. A multiple of a number remains a multiple of it, when a multiple of that number is subtracted from it. Perhaps this might be more neatly expressed thus: The difference of two multiples of a number is also a multiple of it, e. g., $14 = 2 \times 7$, $36 = 2 \times 18$; $36 - 14 = 22$, a multiple of 2. We will now examine the illustrations given. The contributor of the article to the *Illinois Teacher* states that he was led to the discovery by seeing the number 9,129,329 given to a class as a perfect cube. This number happens to be a multiple of 11, on this and on the second and third principles we have given above, depends the whole process.

Example I. They were told to take any number expressed by three figures, and repeat it; so as to make hundreds of thousands, of course it will be a multiple of 1001, which is a multiple of 11; thus, $765765 = 765 \times 1001 = 765 \times 13 \times 7 \times 11$.

If, then, we divide by 13 and 7, and by different numbers under 10, until we reduce the quotient to three figures, we have a multiple of 11 remaining.

Unseen Operation.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 7)765765 \\
 \hline
 5)109395 \\
 \hline
 9)21879 \\
 \hline
 13)2431 \\
 \hline
 187
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 187^2 = 34,969 \\
 187^3 = 6,539,203
 \end{array}$$

7, the better to disguise them.

Example II. This is nearly the same as the previous one, except that in place of two divisions, he has the number 1859 subtracted; since it is a multiple of 11, (1859 = 169 × 11), principle 6 applies. The cube given is 129; $25x, 2x6$. The root of 129 is 5; the cube of 6 ends in 6; $5 + 6 = 11$, $\therefore 4 \times 6 = 10$, and the root required is 506.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 506^2 = 256,036 \\
 506^3 = 129,554,216
 \end{array}$$

Unseen Operation.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 8)632632 \\
 \hline
 79078 \\
 -8008 \\
 \hline
 13)71071 \\
 \hline
 7)5467 \\
 \hline
 781 \\
 -383 \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

$$418^3 = 73,034,632$$

Example IV. In this and the following example, the number to be cubed is obtained in a different way. An even number is taken; of course all its multiples are divisible by 2. He then has it multiplied by 9 and 6 and a cipher annexed; this is equivalent to multiplying by 540; next the original number is subtracted and the remainder is the product of the original number by 539, a multiple of 11. Now $539 = 7 + 7 \times 11$, therefore the division by 7, 2

Unseen Operation.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 34 \\
 9 \\
 \hline
 306 \\
 6 \\
 \hline
 18360 \\
 -34 \\
 \hline
 7)18326 \\
 \hline
 2)2618 \\
 \hline
 7)1309 \\
 \hline
 187
 \end{array}$$

$$187^3 = 6,539,203$$

He here tells also the number thought of. It will be perceived that the 34 was first multiplied by 539 ($7 \times 7 \times 11$), then divided by 7, 7 and 2. The result we know, 187; reversing the remaining

operations, *i. e.*, dividing by 11 and multiplying by 2, we have $187 \div 11 \times 2 = 34$.

Example V. Is similar to the last. The only point requiring explanation is, that when the cube is given, although the number cubed is not known, yet an error in that cube is at once asserted. The cube as given is $1,2xx,x40$. Why is this at once pronounced wrong? The cube-root of 1 is 1; the cube of 9 ends in 9; therefore the number would be 99, which has only two figures and does not begin with 1. Hence the number given is not a correct cube of a multiple of 11. The corrected cube, $9,1xx,x29$, is then given, and the cubic root is 209. From this the number thought of is easily deduced by reversing the remaining operations, which were performed on it, *viz.*, dividing by 11 and multiplying by 3.

H. M. L.

Our Book Table.

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Editors' Department.

TEACHERS OF RHODE ISLAND.

THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION will hold a Meeting on FRIDAY and SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 21st and 22d, at Westerly;

And also on FRIDAY and SATURDAY, DECEMBER 5th and 6th, at Wickford.

Let the meetings be fully attended. Business of great importance to teachers will come up for discussion.

THE ROLL OF HONOR.—Rhode Island has received many encomiums of praise for her patriotism, and that, too, well deserved. She has sent forth men from the workshop, the counting-room, the bar, the pulpit, the plough and the school-room. From her list of teachers she has sent some bright examples. Mr. William A. Mowry, of the Providence High School, and Samuel Thurber, from the junior department of the same school, have joined the gallant Eleventh. Add to these the names of Edwards, of East Greenwich, and Burlingame, of Elmwood, of the same regiment, and we have a noble galaxy of patriotic men from the ranks of teachers. All praise to our worthy brethren of the teacher's profession. We have no doubt when occasion calls, others will haste to the summons until this foul rebellion shall be effaced from our hitherto fair escutcheon. We will not forget those who are now bearing the musket in a righteous cause, nor those who have already fallen in the struggle for constitutional liberty.

PIANO-FORTES.—We extract the following notice of those world-renowned instruments from the London *Musical World*, and ask a perusal from our music-loving readers:

"*American Piano-Fortes*.—Not one of the least anomalous things in the present state of affairs on the other side of the Atlantic is, that whilst Birmingham was manufacturing arms to send to America, New York should be making pianos to send to London. The reverse would have been a more natural order of things, seeing that Europe is at this time in the attitude of a peacemaker, whilst America, unhappily, is in that of a belligerent. Nevertheless it is pleasant to know that Americans are not all wedded to the dread Bellona, and that amid the fruitless strife between North and South the peaceful arts still flourish, and the meek-eyed Cecilia holds her own. It is indeed singularly striking how peaceful are all the products in the American Department of the Great Exhibition, and how the emblems of kindly plenty still prevail there. The husbandman finds ingenious tools for wooing the stubborn earth; the handicraftsman a variety of labor-saving machines for bringing use-

ful manufactures to the million; the artist, painting and sculpture; the musician, musical instruments. Only the warrior is left unrepresented.

The International Exhibition is so rich in musical instruments from all parts of the Globe, that in ordinary times it would not excite surprise that our cousins from the other side of the Atlantic had availed themselves of a good opportunity to show the Old World that they can do something in the way of making them, especially as regards the piano-forte. A few travelled artists, and one or two manufacturers, were at least aware that excellent pianos were made in the States, and that exportation from Europe had virtually ceased. The more enthusiastic of the artists who long since had visited America did not hesitate to claim for the pianos made there a high perfection of tone and workmanship, but the skeptical hesitated to believe that the trade had progressed so far as it really has. We are now able to judge for ourselves. Messrs. Steinway & Sons, of New York, exhibit four pianos in the American department. They are so excellent that the jury has awarded a prize to and an encomium on the fortunate makers. When we find that they are thus officially ranked with the best instruments in the building, we may readily conclude that they combine all the best known points of the manufacture, and perhaps introduce some novelties. The instruments are handsome in exterior, displaying taste and richness of carving without any overwrought striving for splendor, or special predilection for mere cabinet work. Musically they are of the fullest compass, and speak with real grandeur of tone,—a square or horizontal piano made by this house having the power of an average grand, and withal a quality of sound which will bear favorable comparison with that of any country. In America the square piano takes the place of the upright piano here. It is the instrument of the home circle. To this circumstance may be ascribed the marked improvements which have been made in its manufacture—improvements which we may here add have been extended also to grand pianos. The manufacturers claim the following peculiarities in the building of their instruments:—

'1. A novel distribution of the sounding board, of the bridges and of the strings; 2. A new construction of the iron frame; 3. The adoption of a double repeating mechanism, which imparts to the touch greater ease, elasticity and promptness.'

The opinion has widely obtained latterly that the square or horizontal piano could not be perfected to the same extent as the grand, as, indeed, the fruitless efforts in that direction would seem to demonstrate. The attempt to obtain more power and volume of tone by stretching the lower-toned wires over the shorter or higher-toned ones (called overstringing), in order to gain more room and sounding-board surface, proved only partially successful, in consequence of the inequalities in the

scale which resulted from that plan. The makers who were most enthusiastic for the theory abandoned it at length as impracticable; but Messrs. Steinway and Sons seem to have extended their experiments to a successful issue. By the invention of an ingenious acoustical instrument, they were enabled to ascertain the exact vibrations of the sounding board, and to place the bridges—two or more, as the case might require—on exactly the spots that would least interfere with the same. The result was a great increase of tone, and unusual equality throughout the scale. This principle they have applied to all kinds of pianos, with the most satisfactory results.

Being enabled, then, to allot to each individual string a larger share of sounding board, and to bring it into closer harmony with the workings of the same, their next efforts were directed to the quality of the tone produced. To combine the mellowness of wood-constructed pianos with the strength and brilliancy of those in which iron constituted a principal feature, was obviously the desideratum. The pianos exhibited at South Kensington, described by the Jury as "powerful, clear and brilliant," demonstrate the gratifying, and in many respects surprising, success which has attended this effort. The iron frame used by Messrs. Steinway & Sons is a single casting, contrived for horizontal pianos—in such a way that the heretofore unavoidable intersections of the sounding-board bridges are entirely done away. This important modification secures at once an even and uninterrupted scale. In consequence, too, of the pressure of the iron frame upon and against the tuning-block—thus welding, as it were, the two substances into one solid whole—they have obviated the transverse vibrations, and avoided those dull, thumping by-tones which are so offensive to the sensitive ear. The iron frames of the grand pianos are upon the same principle, being distinguished only by the shape of the iron bars, which form a triangle pressing with the broad end against the tuning-block,—a construction which gives strength, and assists materially in keeping the instrument in tune.

The advantage of Messrs. Steinway's double repetition action over that heretofore in use seems to consist in its independence of the "jack" and "nut," thereby permitting a free and unrestrained movement. Experience has shown that all appendages to either the "jack," the "nut," or the "hammer," ultimately and inevitably result in a rattling kind of noise and an injury to the tone, whereas this mechanism insures ease, elasticity, promptness and force of touch.

These fine instruments have attracted the attention they merit, and have been purchased by Messrs. Cramer, Beale & Wood, who, we learn, have become the English agents for Messrs. Steinway & Sons."

THE interesting description of the country along the Potomac, (on page 335), is an extract from a letter to the *Evening Press* by a chaplain of a Rhode Island regiment.

LECTURE ON HUMBOLDT.—Dr. William Gottschalk, of this city, gave a learned and highly interesting lecture in Lyceum Hall, last evening, on the life and services of this distinguished scientist, whose friendship he had himself enjoyed, and whose genius and labors his own scientific attainments especially fit him to appreciate and interpret. This great investigator, whose researches into the mysteries of Nature were pushed with such unexampled vigor and perseverance, was born on the 14th of September, 1769. He came into the world a privileged being, for he not only possessed the advantages of rank and fortune, but his lot was cast in a highly educated circle. He was surrounded in early youth by the most gifted intellects of his time, and his social position afforded him opportunities for the noblest intellectual culture. His early manhood was spent in scientific labors for the promotion of the interests of his native country, more especially the development of its mining resources. But the great object of his ambition was to become the explorer of the new world. He landed in Venezuela in July, 1799, and commenced an exploring expedition through South America and Mexico, which lasted five years. He also visited the United States, where he became the guest of President Jefferson, and devoted himself to the study of the political relations of the people. On his return to Europe he was everywhere hailed as a second Columbus. Though a Baron and Privy Counsellor of his King, he did not regard it as beneath his dignity to become an instructor of the common people.

In 1843 he commenced that gigantic labor of his life, the *Cosmos*. Late in the evening of his days, he offered to the people a work, the fragments and materials of which he had been gathering for half a century. Having sounded Nature to its depths, he collated the past and present results of all his investigations. To create such a work, the vastest the world had ever seen was reserved for him who had travelled over half the world and penetrated its secrets as no human being had ever done before.

Among the new sciences of which Humboldt was the founder were those of Comparative Geography, Hydrography, Geognosy and Comparative Climatology. He also took great interest in Ethnological studies, and his vast magnetic observations were the foundation of that wonderful progress in the science of Magnetism which has distinguished the present century. He spoke many languages, and in politics was a Liberalist. He died in May, 1859, honored throughout the civilized world.—*Providence Press*.

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Yours, &c., M. A. LYNDE,
County Superintendent, California."

LUCIUS A. WHELOCK, Usher in the Dwight School, Boston, has enlisted in Capt. Fowle's company, Tiger Regiment, for nine months' service. Mr. Wheelock enlists as a private from entirely patriotic motives. He retains his connection with the school, his place being supplied during his absence. If he only makes as good a soldier as he is a teacher, nothing more can be asked of him.—*Mass. Teacher*.

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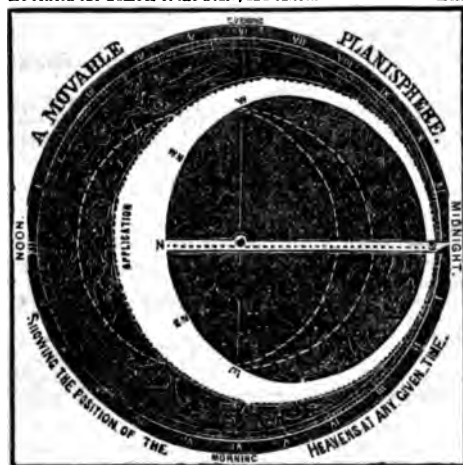
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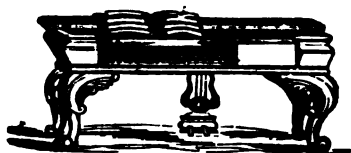
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The R. I. Schoolmaster.

DECEMBER, 1862.

VOLUME EIGHT.

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For the Schoolmaster.
The Study of Latin.

MANY of our high schools contain a class of pupils who do not intend to pursue a liberal course of education; but who wish, for various reasons, to take up Latin. Not a few of them will commence the study with a good degree of energy, but in a few months become tired of it, and anxious to give it up. If permitted to do so, the time already spent upon it will have been wasted, and if compelled to go on, their growing distaste for the study makes it of doubtful benefit. Without pausing to discuss the question of the relative merits of mathematics and the classics as a means of mental discipline, we would start the inquiry, "How can such pupils pursue to the best advantage the study of Latin?"

pupil the true ends to be attained by the study of the ancient languages, and at the same time make him understand that no satisfactory knowledge of either Greek or Latin can be gained without diligent and persevering study. There may be exceptions to the rule, but as a general thing, if the boy or girl cannot devote two or three years to the study he had better not commence it. Let him also be assured that for the first year at least he must delve and toil as it were in the hard rock to find the precious ore of knowledge. All this can and should be done by an instructor who is alive to the real interests of those committed to his charge. But after that comes another and more difficult question. How can a three years' study of Latin be made at once interesting and profitable? How shall the pupil be made to progress thoroughly and yet not too slowly?

Undoubtedly observation will confirm the statement that there is both too much and too little time given to Latin in our higher schools. Too much, because some scholars ought never to have commenced it and because time is wasted through defective modes of teaching it. Too little, because it is an admirable means of discipline when properly pursued, and also because more pupils than are usually found engaged in the study might do so with advantage. It is usually the custom of teachers to mark out for such pupils a course exactly like that which they would adopt if preparing them for college. But it is a question whether some modifications ought not to be made in the case of those we are now considering. Students who are to spend four years in college occupy by far the larger part of their time in the academy or high school in the work of preparation. The amenities of study come after they have entered the university. Of course nothing can take the place of a thorough and systematic drill. It is essential to the success of every student of Latin. But it is doubtful whether it needs to be as prolonged or extensive for those whose time is so much more limited. Shall no attention be given to the literature and history of the language?

The first mistake commonly made by the pupil is with reference to the kind of benefit he expects to gain from the study of an ancient language. Oftentimes it will be found that the scholar has no intelligent idea about it, but wishes to study it, perhaps, because some of his fellow-pupils are doing so. The correction of such an error is evidently the first duty of the teacher. Let him present to the mind of the

At the public schools in England we know that the attainments of the best scholars in the ancient languages would shame those of many of our college graduates. But if we do not think it necessary that our university students should be able to write Greek and Latin poetry, may not there be still more allowance made for those who can never enter the university? In some of our schools, especially in the city, the teacher has no choice. The same course is marked out for all who study the same branches. But in many others it is not fixed by any particular rules, but is left, more or less, to the judgment of the instructor. The question then recurs again, "What are the ends to be kept in view and how can they best be attained?" The single topic in connection with this whole subject on which we would now make one or two suggestions relates to its connection with the study of English. One of the most striking facts with which the student becomes conversant in studying the structure of our language is that a large part of our words are derived, either directly or indirectly, from the Latin.

Of course, then, a knowledge of Latin becomes an essential means in gaining a clear and thorough knowledge of English. But in addition to this there should be the ability to use our native tongue with gracefulness and precision. To the attainment of this end perhaps nothing contributes more than the habit of making careful and critical translations from one language to another. Scarcely any point is more neglected in our schools than this, and consequently no accomplishment is rarer. Too often teachers content themselves with very ordinary renderings of the text, and not unfrequently with very loose and inaccurate versions.

Undoubtedly the ability to translate well depends somewhat upon the command of language possessed by the pupil. But it is equally certain that this power may be increased by careful exercise. The critical judgment of the scholar should be frequently called into action. He should learn to discriminate accurately between the meaning of synonymous words. The differences of idiom and the exact signification of words as determined by their composition and derivation should be dwelt upon. Written translations of difficult passages will also be found a useful exercise.

By persevering in this method the instructor will find his pupils acquiring a new power in the use of language, and at the same time forming a habit of thoroughness and accuracy which will be invaluable to them in other studies.

But in order to effect all this the teacher himself must be both careful and diligent. He must be ever mindful of the truth that there is no channel of influence through which he is not impressing his own mental and moral characteristics upon the minds of his pupils. So subtle and mysterious is the sympathy between the souls of men that even his own habits of thought and study will be felt and in some degree reproduced by those who receive his instructions.

2.

From the Indiana School Journal.
To Young Teachers.

In our last we learned, to some extent, the nature of the *work to be done*. In this, we are to consider briefly the *means* of its accomplishment.

These means are many and various, but the Teacher is the principal means. Now, if the teacher is perfect in his or her qualification for the work the work will be well done, but if otherwise the work will be otherwise done. Now, as you are young teachers, as per our caption, you will not feel offended if you are presumed not perfect in qualification. This being the case, it becomes necessary to consider two things; first, the *qualifications desired*, second, the *means of their attainment*. We shall however invert this order in our treatment of the subject, taking the second first, and not improbably omitting the first altogether, owing to the great space required.

1. Then of the means of the Teacher's qualification, or **MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT**. Of these means we notice, first,

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

After you have pursued an ordinary course of instruction in the common school, high school, academy or college a course in the normal school is the means most effective and thorough for professional training. This, we are fully aware, is an impracticability with many of you, yet we hope not with all. This impracticability does not, however, lessen the efficiency of the means, hence it should be classed where it belongs, viz., *first*. We do not propose arguing the importance of normal schools, but rather to venture an opinion, viz.: that twenty-five years hence it will be a matter of surprise that in 1862 whole counties of teachers could be found in Indiana, not one of whom had normal school drill.

If possible enter these schools. Remember that to him that striveth belongeth the mastery.

As a matter of encouragement, permit us to say that a young lady from Richmond, Indiana, has gone all the way to the Normal School at Westfield, Massachusetts. Here is an act to provoke you to good works. You will be paid for your effort. A few years since a young lady of this city went to a normal school, taking a whole or partial course, and on returning was placed in charge of a grammar department, a position one grade above any other female teacher of the city. Wherever the value of normal-school drill is known, the teacher possessing such drill, other things equal, stands first.

Hence if in anywise practicable, avail yourselves of this important means of improvement. But where this is wholly impracticable, take the next best means, viz. :

INSTITUTES.

In this day of institutes, it is unnecessary to define or describe them further than to say they are a species of normal schools, short in duration and itinerating in character. Their prime object, as that of normal schools, is the professional training of teachers, giving much of their attention to *modes* of teaching. In testimony of their efficiency, it would be easy to fill twenty pages from such men as Horace Mann, Barnard, Russell, Page, Northend, and from superintendents of public instruction on through all grades of teachers to the humblest primary teacher who has availed herself of such means of improvement. Suffice it to say, that so valuable is this means of improvement considered, that the legislatures of several of the States have made appropriations for their support.

A trustee of our acquaintance, visited an institute while in session in this city, and took the names of all the teachers of said city who were in attendance at the institute. And what did this mean? Simply, that when he came to employ teachers he would know who were availing themselves of this important means of improvement and who were not. Trustees elsewhere will in many cases do the same.

We notice as a second means,

JOURNALS OF EDUCATION.

1. They furnish you with the educational intelligence of the times. If institutes are to be held, academies, colleges or normal schools to be opened, journals tell you. If educational reforms are attempted, or advancements secured, journals give you the facts, and probably the principles. In short, they are the coupling-poles that hitch you on to the car of profession-

al progress, thus preventing your being left behind the times.

2. They give you suggestions, facts discussions and theories on almost every known school duty. In this they are a kind of professional library—fresh with the perennial thoughts of your co-laborers in different positions and different locations throughout the State.

3. They do much in begetting and fostering a professional feeling. This is an item of vast importance, though often overlooked. If you expect to go forward and upward in your calling, you must catch the glow, and experience the stimulus of professional feeling—you must feel to magnify your office and make it honorable! Journals, if carefully read, will do much to accomplish this end. But observe, for this or any other purpose, they must be read, well read, then their suggestions studied until mastered and appropriated—then taken into the school-room and *tried, PROVED*. Do not fail at this point, for new plans or theories are not to be taken as a sweet morsel to be rolled smoothly over the tongue, then ejected as a refuse cud of thought to be seen and remembered no more. No, but on the contrary, to be tasted, chewed, swallowed, digested, assimilated and incorporated in your mental fabric, your professional being. Further, in the use of journals, we would suggest that they be carefully filed. They serve as a valuable reference, often furnishing facts and statistics nowhere else to be found. Hence *file and preserve your journals*.

4. Journals are valuable as a medium through which you can make your thoughts known to others. In this manner you improve in both matter and style. This is that which “scattereth, yet increaseth.” Hence the conclusion in all the counts is, first, that journals of education are a valuable means of professional improvement; second, that no teacher, *no, not one, —high or low, rich or poor, old or young*, ought to be without at least one such journal. But, in answer to this, you may say, an editor is liable to bias in judgment, being desirous of a large circulation for his journal; hence may be too earnest in this matter. As for myself, I confess to an ardent desire for a large circulation for our *Journal*, and for two reasons. First, because of the increased usefulness of the *Journal* consequent thereupon. Second, because I am charged in a good degree with the no trivial labor of sustaining said *Journal*. But in this case I’ll waive both these considerations, and say, if our *Journal* does not suit you, take some

other. Our two sister States, Ohio and Illinois, both have excellent journals, if our's does not suit you, take one of them, or one from some other State. But by all means, *take a journal*.

At this point permit a thought more. Did it ever occur to you how little, we, as teachers, spend for professional reading in comparison with other professions? Did you ever know a good physician who did not take from one to three medical journals, costing from two dollars to nine dollars per annum? Did you ever know an able minister who did not take from one to five religious papers and journals? Did you ever know an earnest politician who did not take from five to twenty political papers? But on the other hand, few teachers take more than two, and three-fourths or under take none. What is the reason for this difference? If there is a good and valid reason, let us hear it. Additional, we as teachers sometimes clamor for recognition as a profession, yet not one-fourth of our number read professional journals. These two things, in our opinion, hardly consist. But without pursuing the matter farther, we will give, in conclusion, the opinion of an older and probably a better judge than the writer, viz., Charles Northend.

Thus he speaks in his work called Teachers' Assistant: "If you have not sufficient interest in your work to induce you to become a subscriber to one of these works, (*i. e.* journals,) the sooner you abandon the profession of teaching the better it will be for community." Show this opinion to that neighbor teacher of yours, who who does not take a journal and if he thinks journal, send his name.—G. W. H., Indianapolis.

For the Schoolmaster.
Text-Books.

THERE is too much allegiance paid to books. Books taken as positive authority work injuriously upon the mind. The mind should not be made a reservoir to receive, as *positive truth*, whatever any author may feel disposed to pour into it. No author is unerring. All have faults. Hence, to teach the letter of any class of text-books is injurious. The spirit of truth should always be sought after. No matter how popular any author may be, the pupil should be led to question and reason for himself. The mind is superior to all books; and the superiority of mind consists in its power to discriminate between truth and error; as is the moral power to discriminate between right and wrong.

The world is flooded with text-books. Almost every teacher of experience, as a teacher, becomes an author of a text-book. This is well. It gives a larger field in which to gather the germs of truth. I would not ignore any book as a "*help*," but all books as positive authority. I would have a uniformity of text-books in schools, but would always have them recognized as *helps*. Teachers' libraries should be supplied with most of the different kinds. Teachers are apt to become dogmatical. Frequent reference to different authors will keep the mind free and give self-reliability by frequent lessons of different authors of the fallibility of text. School committees cannot be too careful in the selection of text-books for schools. Much of the improvement of the pupil depends on the *kind* of text-books used. Above all there should be a uniformity, *used as aids*.

Madison, N. Y.

E. C.

From the Providence Evening Press, Nov. 5th.
Henry Ward Beecher on "The Education of the People."

DELIVERED BEFORE THE FRANKLIN LYCEUM.

Mr. Beecher's lecture last evening was attended by a very large and intelligent audience. The hall was filled almost immediately after the doors were opened. The favorite pianist Mr. Edward Hoffman, of this city, enlivened the half hour preceeding the appearance of the lecturer, with excellent music. The instrument used by him was one of Light & Bradbury's, procured expressly for Roger Williams Hall.

Mr. Beecher announced as his subject, "The Education of Man as a citizen." He said, "The development of morality and intelligence are indispensable elements in such an education; but a man may have both, and yet be a poor citizen; for to be a good citizen requires that there should be a *fitting of the man to the ideas and the government under which he lives*. We are to educate men for American citizenship; according to American ideas. In those peculiar ideas that go to make civil polity we are widely separated from all other nations. These are some things with us, not found elsewhere, which give to us distinctively American ideas, which we get by virtue of the religiousness of our ancestors—those things which we are perpetually tempted of the Devil to let go and forget, and which, for the last thirty years, we have been steadily losing.

And first are American ideas of the origin, nature, capacity, and dignity of man; for here, more than anywhere else, or ever before, if not here only, Man stands before the State. The State is the nursery; man the essential thing nursed. The cradle is good; but is not the baby better? Here it was first affirmed that man had *natural rights* in government, and

se rights were defined to be among the most fundamental and important. Being natural, they could not be taken away, except for crime. Monarchs could never take away from man the right of respiration; no more could they his rights, in government.

The two elements of man's dignity are his divinity and his immortality. So great is this dignity that no man strikes with such criminal hand as he who strikes at the conscious manhood of the man. Ouravior did not utter his most bitter denunciations against thieves or murderers; but his terrible words were launched against men who employed their power to grind and injure their fellow and weaker men. And I tremble for my country when I remember how flagrant the waste of manhood—how awful the marketing and dishonoring of Christ's image.

How indulgent have we all been to these national iniquities. The pulpit has been apologetic of this iniquity. We have all been partners in the great aggression of transgressions—grinding down men. His is the one black, gaunt, infernal sin that God will not forgive nor forget. He that died to save men in everlasting and immortal antipathy with those at alive to destroy men.

These views of man—his divinity and dignity, his immortality, his imperishable worth—were the views that were entertained by those immortal men that founded for us the peculiar institutions that we are used to call American Republican institutions.

See how these truths will work out into politics—into society. The first effect is a revolutionary one at least a radical reformatory one. These views tend to take out of the way every artificial barrier hindrance that prevents any man from being whatever he has the power to become. His own capacity is the only rule.

Again these views furnish an intense motive to the elevation of every member of Society. Education is not a gift, like privileges and prerogatives—a gift; we do not claim it as a gift, we claim it as a right.

These views of man tend also to form a conscience which becomes sensitive and punitive of the wrongs which are inflicted upon men. Sins against man become the most aggravated of sins. If you would assure the Christianity of a community you must not count how many churches there are, but feel its pulse respect to its lower strata. If you find that the whole community is jealous of its weak and of its poor; if any wrong done to the poor is accepted as a wrong done to the whole; if they are as children of the household, then religion has made great progress that community. When a community is insensible to the wants of the poor, it has learned that lesson of the devil.

Against these views there is a perpetual struggle in the nature of man and in the tendencies and courses of society. It is repugnant to man's selfishness to recognize the brotherhood and recognize it in all the relations of life. It is repugnant to his pride. It is repugnant to the conventions of taste and refinement.

It is repugnant to the doctrine of gradations in society.

These tendencies have had fatal stimulus in this land by the spirit of a system which puts dishonor upon man—by law taking away from the slave his title to manhood, and making color and strength the only ground of superiority.

I speak next of the education of man to the duties of citizenship which these radical doctrines of manhood evolve. First, we must put honor upon the discharge of public civil duties. We seem to think that a good quiet citizen, who does not vote or trouble himself as to the measures which men vote upon, is almost synonymous with a virtuous man. And yet, according to the nature of government inspired by these radical views of man, there can be no office more full of dignity than that by which every man makes his contribution to the maintenance of the civil economy of which he is a part.

We must also scourge from men the idea that political duty is optional. It must be like virtue, truth or honesty, a perpetual and unvarying obligation. Every man under this government, and every woman—if the men were half-witted—would have to vote. If we could have women voting now, what changes would come upon our Councils! What ranks of men would disappear ignominiously and what troops of other men would rise to eminence and power.

It is not only not wrong to meddle with politics in the pulpit, but the pulpit that does not meddle with politics, the devil meddles with;—not to urge the party candidate, not to add fuel to the fire, but to teach those great underlying principles of human conduct—the inculcation of the humanities and justices that belongs to every faithful pulpit.

The common element in which these doctrines must thrive and these political duties be enforced is *general intelligence*. It is becoming very plain to us that a nation such as ours, with such tremendous breadth and depth and pressures and powers, cannot stand except by the intelligence of its common people. I hold that this whole mischief of rebellion has come upon us by reason of ignorance. Mr. Gladstone, in his recent speech, said that "the cause of liberty has been damaged in Europe essentially by the prolonged struggle in this country." This struggle has been prolonged unwarrantably and outrageously. It is said we should not have ripened so fast in the direction of the abolition of slavery but for this prolongation. There are two kinds of ripening. One is "worm-eaten" ripe and the other is natural ripe. I am afraid this is not a ripening from principle; it is exigency, fear, military necessity, that lead you to hope for emancipation. Do you believe in it as a justice? Do you demand it as a right? Do you stand, back of expediency, on everlasting principles? However, I do not know but long delay is going to reproduce the old state of things. I have my fears from the result of recent elections, that we are going to swing back to the old-time power—to

the re-establishment of slavery by truckling compromise.

I think we have rendered ourselves liable to misrepresentation by the undue length of this war. But to us nothing will demonstrate the capacity of man for self-government more than this same war. There never since the sun rose and set has been such a spectacle of capacity to endure burdens patiently, and to wait upon the lagging steps of Government. There never has been so far as the common people were concerned, such an exhibition of efficiency. It is the government that fails, not the people. They have given everything that man can give, and been patient with everything except "not doing." Of that they are weary. Of that they are heart sick. On account of that there is danger of a reaction of the great common people. But I stand in the face of the world to challenge admiration upon investigation and say that the people who have passed through this great struggle are more noble in the world's sight than any people before them. It is where the wheelwork of Government comes over the people that we fail. The result of the experiment is that the people are able—the Government is imbecile.

Though I think of our Government that it is as honest an one as has ever stood in Washington. I say the truth when I say I do not think it is as able an one. I do not blame it; it does not know how to do any better; it does not know how to do as well as the country requires. What are we going to do? I don't know. If God gives us deliverance, I think he means to illustrate the power of His own democratic people, and that we are to look for salvation to our common people; to their toughness, their elasticity, their endurance, their wisdom—the essential wisdom of their instincts—and not from the capacity of the Government.

This struggle has been brought upon us through the ignorance of the South working with Slavery.

And now suppose the war was ended, not by foul compromise, but by the honest vindication of the supremacy of the Government through the force of its arms, what is to be the guaranty of future prosperity. Are we not warned that when population in waves shall roll clear across the middle territories, and we shall count millions by hundreds throughout the continent, we cannot maintain our integrity without intelligence. The schoolmaster and schoolmistress will govern Tennessee, Mississippi and Alabama. And if they call these contrabands, they will not be governed, and you will have perpetual rebellion.

To educate, should become our mania and passion. We have had revivals of religion—blessed manias; temperance reforms that ran wildly through the country, only to be regretted on account of their discontinuance. Now, we must have another mania—a mania for education. It is necessary to send the Gospel abroad, and to the far West; but it seems to me that for the next fifty years the Church and the State should vie with each other in sending out schoolmasters; and that the work of this age is—**EDUCATION.**"

For the Schoolmaster.

Methods of Writing English while Studying English Grammar.

It has been one end of the five preceding papers on grammar to show that writing itself is of primary importance. The pupil's pen should never lie idle. From the very beginning of his study in the text-book to the close, he should be constantly using the language he is studying, because the proper and correct use of the language is what he aims to attain. So soon as he learns what is a noun, he should be directed not only to select and describe nouns from words used in books, but to write nouns himself and to keep writing them till he can tell one at a glance or write one from seeing the object it represents, if he be called on to do so. For the purpose of such exercise, he should be furnished with a slate and pencil, if he be too young to write, and taught to print the words of his exercise on his slate; if he can write, he should purchase a blank book and use a pen, paying particular attention to neatness of handwriting and correctness, and to spelling and punctuation. Suppose he has learned the definition of a noun—"A noun is the name of an object." The directions given him by the teacher might be such as these:—

Lesson (a). Write, for the next day, the names of all the objects on your desk. When he brings to recitation these names written, he may be tested concerning his knowledge of nouns by means like the following: *Questions*.—What are all these names called? What is a noun? What is—? (name one of the words written.) Why? What is—? Why? How many names of objects have you written? How many nouns have you written? Point to the nouns. Point to the objects. Is the object the noun? Is the noun the object? What is the noun?

Then, if further instruction be given from the grammar book, such definitions and explanations as follow might be employed, either to be recited by the learner or stated by the teacher.

Definition. A common noun is the name of an individual of a class of objects.

Explanation. An individual of a class means one of a class. *Questions*.—How many nouns have you written? Have you written the word book? What is "book"? Can you think of a large number of books? Is the name book commonly used to designate one of a large number of things of the same kind? What part of

is "book"? What kind of a noun?

might be the sort of drill to fix the dis- of common nouns in the mind, and lows the writing of common nouns.

x. Write a list of twenty common

after drill on proper nouns:

x. Write a list of twenty common and proper nouns.

ingenuity of the teacher might arrange ills of similar character at proper stages action.

d not the subjects studied thus become be understood and would not a foun- or the practice of Syntax be laid, while in parsing would not be hindered and ns would be none the less readily learn- the grammar book become less a dry d more a book of instruction than it is present?

the head Lesson, I arrange some hints task to be set one day for the pupil to previous to his recitation on the next Under the head EXERCISE, is indicated teacher might say to his pupils at the ecitation previous to announcing a task formed.

use I. Springs, leaves, birds, grass, , robins, boys, ladies, goats.

ing, grows, whistle, play, browae, talk, , run.

x. Copy the foregoing words and so em by twos that each couplet of words something. Model—Leaves fall, etc.

use III. The black, the long, old, lit- , young, angry, dead, cool, dry.

x. So attach the words in the third h of exercises to the words as written at lesson as that the three words taken shall say something, and shall express of object mentioned. Model—Dry

l. Cool springs run, etc.

iewing the grammar book, other exer- imilar spirit should be invented, may- what like those which follow here.

use (b). Read a set of words. What y? Which is the noun? Which is the Which is the adjective? Which is the

Which is the predicate? Which is tive element? The three words con- together make a sentence. What idea ave on the mention of the first word? nd. The third. What thought is ex-

What expresses this thought? What

is a sentence? By what does a sentence express thought?

Lesson. Commit these sentences to memory:

A sentence is a thought expressed in words.

A word is the sign of an idea.

EXERCISE. What is a sentence? What is a word? What idea do you have on hearing the word locusts mentioned or seeing it spelled out? What object do you have an idea of when you hear or see the word horse? Donkey? Crows? Trees? Flowers?

Lesson. Write one sentence [or express one thought] on the subject, Locusts. On the subject, Horse. Donkey. Crows. Trees. Flow- ers.

EXERCISE. Write Doves. Camels. Turtles. Elephants. Fish.

Select one of these words for a subject on which to write two, and only two, sentences, one of which shall describe the animal and the other tell where it lives.

Lesson. Write two sentences upon each of the subjects mentioned in the preceding exer- cise, in one describing the animal considered, in the other telling where it lives. Only two sentences are to be written, and they should be as brief as possible.

Criticism. At each recitation let the spell- ing, punctuation, and particularly the mode of expression, be rigidly and severely criticised, so far as the pupil will bear criticism, being careful to unite kindness and sympathy with thorough- ness. More breadth, both of subject and space in which to write upon it, can in due time be given.

Now, reader, I have shown you, by certain rude directions, how the true end of grammar study can be arrived at, for while the learner is mastering definitions and the parsing of words, he is likewise learning to write correctly, and is thus accomplishing what it is the purpose of grammar books to teach.

And now, for a while, I lay down my pen.

HENRY CLARK.

From the Connecticut Common School Journal.

Motives in School.

We have often thought that unworthy mo- tives were sometimes held out by teachers to secure proper attention to study and deport- ment in schools. Of these we can now only allude to two or three, and that very briefly.

1. PRIZES. We have no doubt that the hope of gaining a prize may temporarily stimulate a pupil to greater exertion; but too often in his

strife for the prize he overlooks or forgets the true object of study, and not unfrequently the gaining of a prize is regarded as an *end*, rather than as a mere incitement. We have always doubted the expediency of giving prizes, and at a future time may give reasons. Now we merely say that we do not regard it as one of the highest and best motives to study.

2. THE LOVE OF APPROBATION. This may be used to a certain extent. It may be regarded as a worthy motive within certain limits,—but should never be held up as the true end, either for good scholarship or deportment; and yet it may, very properly, be used as an incidental motive. If made too prominent, it may tend to promote a spirit of vanity. The desire to merit approbation of teachers and friends is very laudable,—and only objectionable when it is made an end for all effort.

3. THE FEAR OF PUNISHMENT. This is more unworthy than either of the preceding. It may prove effectual in securing present attention to study and deportment, but will not, in itself, prove permanently salutary. A boy who is compelled by fear of punishment to learn certain lessons, or to refrain from bad habits, will not thereby be made either truly studious or truly good,—and will only do what is required of him because compelled to do so; and when the pressure of this compulsion is removed, he will be prone to yield to reactive influences.

4. Another unworthy motive is the desire to be at the head of the class,—or the best scholar in school. A desire to excel in scholarship may be laudable if such desire is connected with right motives; but if it comes simply from a desire to outdo others, it is wrong. A desire to excel for purposes of good would be different, but a mere desire to be a good scholar, or to be correct in deportment, for the sole purpose of excelling others, is an unworthy and selfish motive.

We have thus briefly alluded to the above because we feel that such motives are too often used in the school-room as ends rather than as aids. Teachers should aim constantly and earnestly to impress upon the minds of their pupils the great object for which they are obtaining an education. It is that they may be taught how to live, and so to perform their several parts in life that the world may be made the better through their influences. The true motive should be a desire to gain knowledge in order to do more good,—to fill up the measure of life usefully; and any motives which fail to impress upon the

minds of the young the true object of life, and prove unworthy and insufficient. Let teachers, therefore, strive so to influence their pupils as to make their highest motive a desire to become true men and true women, and to inspire them with a determination to answer life's great end by acting "well their part" in all the relations of life.

From the Connecticut Common School Journal.
Importance of a More Thorough Training in
Elocution in our Schools.

BY PROF. MARK BAILEY, OF YALE COLLEGE.

EVERY study is valuable in proportion as it tends to develop and cultivate the mind and person of the learner, and to furnish him with the best means and incitements for his great life-work of *self-culture*. The best incitement to any work, and the most permanent, is the *personal interest* of the scholar in it. The natural activity of any of his faculties yields some satisfaction. The mere acquisition of knowledge is pleasing; the exercise of his mind, of reason especially, is gratifying; but the consciousness that his *whole being is growing*—that he is acquiring new *personal power to think, to feel and to express*, affords one of the noblest and sweetest enjoyments of a rational being.

Hence that special study will be comparatively the best, which, together with the most useful knowledge and the best mental discipline, furnishes the *richest* means of personal culture, thus enlisting in its service the self-love and enthusiasm of the pupil, the most potent incitements to that *hard work* which alone can secure great excellence in anything.

Measured by the above tests, why should not the *art of elocution* rank among the *foremost* studies in all our schools, instead of being kept in the back-ground, as it usually is—the primary and middle classes hastening over the mere outside forms of expression, and older classes neglecting even these?

What other study may be of such primary and life-long use to the scholar, including, as it does, the most accurate knowledge and use of the language we speak, quite as much as the *manner* of reading, nay, more, embracing a most minute study of ideas which alone give meaning to words and tones. All the agents of expression must be studied in connection with the things or ideas expressed; they cannot be mastered abstractly; they would be of no use if

ld. The sculptor molds a more beautiful because in addition to his skill in execution he has a more exact knowledge of the form. The great painter excels not by red coloring alone; he has, as well, a finite knowledge of the landscape he paints. And so he who would excel in vocalization of ideas in reading or speaking, must, by his superior vocal culture, be more faithful to all the exact lights and shades in meaning and relation of words, and with more worth and beauty of ideas and emo-

tional discipline, what other branches of study equal such a thorough training in elocution as I am advocating? What else emotion can be put once in harmonious action so many times, intellectual and emotional, as well as in action? *Insight* to see the precise meaning of what is to be read—the ideas. *Judgement* to determine their relative importance for correctly expressing the expressive lights and shades of the subject. *Sympathy* in appreciating the kind of feeling. *Taste* in giving proper form and melody. *Imagination* in making real all the circumstances of character, and placing it in place, with all the modulations of voice necessary to express naturally these vagaries and feelings, and when in declamatory recitation we add the practice of making appropriate gestures, what is there wanting in the "whole man" that is not being cultivated in this single exercise of elocution?

The crowning grace of education is perfect elocution as distinguished from mere learned intellectual power,—that rare culture of the ear, the eye, the voice, the hand, of the person, by which the intellectual and ideal seem to shine through the physical and spontaneously express their ever passing of thought and feeling. A little muddling are doing something toward perfecting the ear, the eye, the hand, in a few schools. Yet the great lack of *emotional sensitive* culture, every enlightened observer sees, is the most lamentable feature of American education. With here and there an exception, our educated men who are educated at our best common schools, our schools and colleges, and our seminaries, are utterly destitute of this emotional and *personal* culture, that they read and hear the most exciting themes ever revealed with a voice and manner so dull, mon-

otonous and passionless, that we should never dream they *had souls*, but for the catechism, or that

"There is in *souls* a *sympathy* with *sounds*."

What but a more thorough elocutionary training through the whole course of instruction can supply this great want of *personal* culture, and redeem our schools from the crime of a heartless and voiceless education?

As one of the extrinsic incentives to this work, call to mind the historic fact, that the expressive arts have always been held in the highest esteem among cultivated peoples, and marked success in any of them has received supreme honor. To give fit expression in some outward forms or colors, words or sounds, to the inmost feelings of humanity, has ever been regarded as the consummate triumph of genius and culture.

What lavish praise is justly bestowed on "the few immortal names," who have enriched the world with the great works of art—in sculpture, painting, poetry and music. Yet the wondrous merit of these master artists was simply that they gave perfect expression to what their admirers only see and feel.

Thus the simplest lesson in reading which is what it should be, an endeavor to give perfect expression to some idea or sentiment, is radically connected with the proudest of the fine arts.

"A word *fitly spoken* is like apples of gold in pictures of silver."

Let teachers and pupils once appreciate this ennobling relation, and much of the mechanical drudgery of teaching and learning would be changed to delightful labor, for they would then see with Shakespeare's love-inspired Ferdinand, that their

"Most poor matters point to rich ends."

But is not all this long introduction about the fine arts and expressive culture, practically considered, all "highfaluten"? Can children be taught to *feel* and *express* as well as to *know* and to *think*? Can elocution, like arithmetic, be thoroughly taught in our common schools? Why not? Is there any thing wanting on the part of the pupils?

Children all *talk* before they come to school; they have *ideas* about a great many things; they have words and voices to utter their ideas in conversation, and even before they have words at all, they have most expressive tones and gestures, by which they make known their feelings. They instinctively understand the

tones of love and hate, of reproof and praise, the frown and smile, the gesture of welcome and repulsion,—all are perfectly understood by children long before the usual age for entering the school; imagination, too, at an early age, is most busy and vivid, transforming the inanimate rag into the living doll, chairs and tables into men and women, and each character in the imagined play made to converse with a naturalness that puts to shame the affected efforts of many older players.

Now what material is wanting here for the most complete success in reading and recitation if wisely worked and cultivated? They can understand simple ideas and feelings; they have, or can easily be taught to have, appropriate words and tones for telling them; vivid imagination to realize all the circumstances; strong and ready feeling, flexible voices usually, and sometimes native gesture, felicitously suited to the idea; all these essential elements of eloquent vocal expression most children have in abundance out of school in conversation and play.

Are the conditions of successful culture, so far as the scholars are responsible, in any other study so complete and ripe for use? Why is it then, with our boasted improvements in the philosophy and art of teaching, with so many excellent teachers anxious to do their best, and successful in so many other things; why is it that there are so few who learn to read decently, so few who learn at school even to enunciate the elementary sounds of our native language with their proper fullness and clearness; so few who pronounce the commonest words with any refined accuracy, fewer who express intelligibly the ideas with their relative lights and shades of meaning and worth, fewer still who make any attempt to express the feelings in what is read, the heart and soul of the thoughts! Is it not plainly and solely because,—

1st. Most teachers themselves are not as well cultivated in the art of elocution as they should be; they are not trained in the quick analysis of the thoughts and sentiments to be read; they are not masters of their own feelings or of their own voices for expressing them, and therefore cannot train their pupils in vocal culture, and arouse their feelings by the electric charms of emotion in their own voice, cannot give practical illustrations and corrections, and hence lose the most potent agents of all teaching and learning, *example* by the teacher, and *imitation* by the scholars.

2d. Because most teachers are not well ac-

quainted with the *science* of elocution. They do not understand the simple principles of expression, and cannot give intelligent instruction even if they could read well; they can only teach the young idea to "shoot" at random without definite aim or effect.

Without clear principles, which alone make any study intelligible and easy and interesting, teachers are obliged to call in the help of such arbitrary rules as avaricious publishers preface their reading books with, to gull the uninitiated who are to commend and introduce them—a multitude of arbitrary, impractical rules which neither enlighten nor interest pupils, which have as many exceptions as observances, and like the manners of Denmark,

"Are more honored in the breach than the observance."

The fundamental principles of any science are very few, and like the law of gravity, which in the same way controls atoms and worlds, are as simple as they are comprehensive. They have no exceptions, and when once seen are sure guides.

Principles bring order out of chaos; they appeal in their constant recurrence and application to the reason and sympathy of the scholar, not to his bare memory; they grow out of the accidental forms as rules may; and by leading the reader constantly back to the *spirit*, which alone should control the voice, they tend to inspire and preserve that beautiful naturalness in elocution which is the consummation of Art; as Lowell finely expresses it,

"Making nature more natural by Art."

3d. Teachers are less successful in elocution than in other studies, because they have no such progressive system of instruction as they have in arithmetic, commencing with the unit of the child's intelligence and feeling, and gradually unfolding more and more difficult lessons as the mind and heart and voice of the child unfold.

The greatest care is needed at every step of progress, to adapt the given lesson as near as possible to the understanding and appreciation of every reader; lest you should forever divorce expression from sense and feeling; this last is the unforgivable sin in teaching reading. Better the scholar never hear of such an art as elocution, than that he be permitted to acquire the habit of formal utterance, that is not prompted from within.

In arithmetic, if a pupil fails to comprehend any one important step, any one principle, he is stopped, perhaps put back in a lower class, so

essential to further progress is his clear mastery of every point deemed.

But in reading, though unmindful of both the sense and the spirit, and innocent of any thought of the existence of a principle, if he "puts through" the right number of words on a high key with a loud voice, he is blissfully left to believe he has done a "big thing," and to wait impatiently the time when he shall astonish the world with his oratorical genius.

From the New York Chronicle.

German Professors.

NEANDER.

MISTAKEN notions prevail to a great extent in America in regard to German professors. By persons who ought to be better informed, they are lumped together, in general, as walking encyclopædias of dry knowledge, living compendiums of transcendental philosophy, which no one understands or pretends to, as destitute of every kind of practical ability,—mere book-worms, without knowledge of the real world around them, and no interest in the every-day concerns of life, unsocial, odd in manners and in dress, and ignorant of all the elegance of polite society. That this conception has too much foundation in fact, no one who has ever passed a week in a German University town, will be bold enough to deny; but like most general statements of the kind, it is altogether too broad and sweeping. It is grossly exaggerated. It would have fitted closer fifty or even forty years ago; for it is a notorious fact, although the Germans dislike to acknowledge it, that the present generation of professors owe much of their culture and refinement to the influence of French ideas, which have crept into society and the church, and greatly modified the University system. It may still be true enough of a large proportion of the professors, who are, it must be allowed, the most terrible book-worms in the world. But it requires little knowledge of German literary society, to know that the truly great thinkers and philosophers, the master-minds of the nation, have almost always been social and genial men, with odd manners, perhaps, and in many cases very unpractical notions. The liveliest man I ever met, the most polite too, is a Heidelberg professor, a man of inexhaustible learning. He never forgets what he has once read; and being a man of wit, and tact at quotation, his stores of reading always come well into play. It would be well for us

if we had as many professors of this stamp among us as Germany can boast of?

There are odd sticks among them; there are thousands of dull book-worms, whose conversation is as dry and spiritless as the very dust that accumulates on their porous folios. The less we have to say of the latter, the better for us and our friends. Let the dust remain! Disturb not its sacred repose!

One of the most singular of all German professors was the great and good Neander, whose amiable spirit and singleness of heart endeared his very oddities and infirmities to his pupils. I have before me a sketch of his manner in the lecture-room, written by a gentleman who was on intimate terms with him and his constant pupil for several months. From this I am permitted to make the following extracts: "Imagine me in the lecture-room, waiting for the eloquent professor to make his appearance. About three hundred pupils are assembled, preparing their pens and paper, and the hum of their voices fills the spacious room. Suddenly a general *hiss* (a strange but here the universal mode of commanding silence and attention) resounds through the room, and looking towards the door we see an uncouth figure, attired in a long, loosely-fitting frock coat, thick, clumsy boots drawn over his trowsers, and reaching nearly to his knees, making his way with a hasty and awkward step in search of his desk,—a bundle of books under his left arm, and both hands spread out as if to aid him in the search; for his eyes seem to be of little use to him in this respect. He is so very near-sighted that he must hold a book close to his face, and then reads with difficulty. The moment he reaches his desk he literally throws himself upon it, and hastily tearing open his Greek Testament without taking the slightest notice of his auditory, instantly begins at the very sentence where the bell interrupted him at the previous lecture. But before the sentence is finished, perhaps, he is interrupted by a loud and angry *hiss*, and looking round for the cause, we see an unlucky student, who is belated, endeavoring to shut the door without disturbing the auditory, and blushing with embarrassment at his uncourteous reception. If a second interruption occurs, the offender is greeted with a still louder and more angry *hiss*, like the rage of so many serpents. Now and then an individual of firmer nerves will *slam* the door in defiance, which generally secures him a more quiet reception. If students who do not belong to the class thus intrude

themselves, the hissing and stamping, repeated over and over, is almost deafening. In the meantime the good-humored lecturer takes no notice of the intrusion or of the interruption, otherwise than by pausing till his voice can be heard again. But no pause is made in his lecture for the benefit of his hearers; it is a continuous flow of thought, illustration and argument, pronounced with an earnestness and fervor that chains the attention. It is only when some reference, or a Hebrew quotation, or a proper name indistinctly heard, produces a general hissing or stamping (the authorized usage in such cases) that he pauses, and repeats his words with more deliberation. If only some dozen or twenty voices call for the interruption he proceeds without noticing it.

"Neander's manner is singularly uncouth, and to a stranger annoying and even repulsive. He had the habit of bruising and crushing a pen between his fingers when engaged in speaking, and was entirely lost without that customary support. His pupils always laid a pen or two on his desk before he came in, and not unfrequently one was handed to him in the course of his lecture. Another habit of his is to put his foot against the wall behind him and push his desk forward until it almost pitches over. It seems as if he must cling with his foot, in some way, like a fly. But his most annoying habit is spitting. For this he is not to blame, as he suffers from a rush of saliva. He actually *throws* it out, first on one side, then on the other, in a kind of sputter, incessant and copious, until the floor looks as if a watering-cart had passed through the room to lay the dust.

"But all these defects of manner are forgotten as soon as the hearer becomes engaged with him in his subject. His power of argumentation is wonderful, and often rises into earnest eloquence." s. s. c.

WOMEN AS TEACHERS.—Every well educated girl feels perfectly conscious that, under favorable circumstances, she can conduct, upon an average, nineteen of her twenty little innocent pupils into an honorable existence. Give her a strong arm for discipline, and a wise head for advice, and her labors fix a divinity upon the face of society. I believe in the infinite susceptibility of children, and also in the moral omnipotence of women, their natural teachers; and there are no evils in society, however deep seated, that may not be removed by a wise application of their powers. A highly cultivated woman is God's antidote for sin and suffering. —T. B. WAIT.

The Celestial Army.

BY THOMAS B. READ.

I stood by the open casement,
And looked upon the night,
And saw the westward going stars
Pass slowly out of sight.

Slowly the bright procession
Went down the gleaming arch,
And my soul discerned the music
Of their long, triumphant march;

Till the great celestial army,
Stretching far beyond the poles,
Became the eternal symbol
Of the mighty march of souls.

Onward, forever onward,
Red Mars led down his clan;
And the moon, like a mailed maiden,
Was riding in the van.

And some were bright in beauty,
And some were faint and small,
But these might be in their greatest height,
The noblest of them all.

Downward, forever downward,
Behind earth's dusky shore,
They passed into the unknown night,
They passed and were no more.

No more? O, say not so!
And *downward* is not just;
For the sight is weak and and the sense is dim,
That looks through heated dust.

The stars and the mailed moon.
Though they seem to fall and die,
Still sweep with their embattled lines
An endless reach of sky,

And though the hills of death
May hide the bright array,
The marshaled brotherhood of souls
Still keeps its upward way.

Upward, forever upward,
I see their march sublime,
And hear the glorious music
Of the conquerors of time.

And long let me remember,
That the palest, faintest one,
May, to diviner vision, be
A bright and blessed sun.

CHILDREN'S TEMPER.—Here are some sensible hints which should be heeded: The suggestion, "Never fear spoiling children by making them too happy," is an important one. Some parents are constantly teaching their children to look on the dark side of their own character, and their teaching soon fixes the habit upon the

led; which ripens into gloominess in mature — a legacy of discomfort and unhappiness rays.

Bad temper is oftener the result of unhappy circumstances than of an unhappy organization; frequently, however, has a physical cause. A peevish child often needs dieting more in correcting. Some children are more prone to show temper than others; and sometimes on account of qualities which are valuable in themselves. For instance, a child of active temperament, sensitive feeling, and eager purpose, is more likely to meet with constant jars and blows, than a dull, passive child; and if he is of an open nature, his inward irritation is immediately shown in bursts of passion. If you resist these ebullitions by scolding and punishment, you only increase the evil by changing passion into sulkiness. A cheerful, good-tempered tone of your own, a sympathy with his trouble whenever the trouble has arisen from no conduct on his part, are the best antidotes; it would be better still to prevent beforehand, as much as possible all sources of annoyance. Never fear spoiling children by making them too happy. Happiness is the atmosphere in which all good affections grow — the wholesome warmth necessary to make the heart-blood circulate healthily and freely; unhappiness is a chilling pressure which produces here an inflammation, there an excrescence, and worst of all, "the mind's green and yellow sickness — temper." — *Exchange*.

From the Massachusetts Teacher.

American Education, as Seen by English Eyes.

It is commonly useful, it is sometimes pleasant, to see one's self in the mirror of another's observations and opinions. Self-reliant as we may profess to be, there are few of us who do not like to take a peep into this mirror, when an opportunity is presented. Hence, English critiques on our country are much more read here than by the community for which they are written. We may knit our brows, we may scold, we may be genuinely angry, but still we read. Some of my readers doubtless remember the excitement produced among us, thirty years ago, by a book through which a never woman took revenge upon us for her lack of financial success in that city which is named as the "Queen of the West," and designated as "Porkopolis." I read the book from the ground which she made the chief

scene of her narratives and descriptions; and was obliged to confess that she was no more unjust to us than we were to her; that she did not exaggerate our defects more than we did the faults of her book; that it was as fair a picture as we had a right to expect from an English woman who had her reputation and fortune to make at home as a writer, and especially in the department of fiction; that, after all the deduction to be made for caricature, *esprit*, national prejudice, and the injustice of attributing to the country in general what belonged only to a part, there was still a large residuum, and by no means a *caput mortuum*, of truth, keen observation and artistic skill. We were, however, almost unanimous in voting her to be what her name, Trollope, expressed; and in taking her as the type of European detractors of our free country, popular institutions and intelligent people.

The volume, scarcely yet dry, from the facile and spirited pen of her son, "North America, by Anthony Trollope," strikingly illustrates both how much progress we have made in a third of a century, and yet more, what progress the English have made towards a just appreciation of us. Many of our readers, doubtless, have either read, or will read this work, which, published in some common year, would have made quite a sensation among us; but I am sure that they will be among the last to make any objection to the transcript upon our pages of the observations which it contains upon American Education. Nor are these reprinted merely for the sake of the many in our profession whose time for general reading, like my own, is nearly absorbed by the daily reports of the scenes and events that so thrill and haunt us. It seems eminently proper that such a testimony to the value of national education, and to the excellence of that education in our country, should have its record on the pages of an educational journal. And certainly, this present year, there can be no cry that the *Teacher* is not practical enough, even should we extend and vary a little, for a single month, the range of selection and discussion for its pages. It is well, at times, to look away from the practical details of our daily work, both to see what others are doing, and also to learn their judgement of our own efforts. We are thus strengthened in the right; we may be corrected in the wrong.

It will certainly be without any feelings of jealousy that we shall read the author's hearty commendation of the New York schools.

SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK.

"As to the schools, it is almost impossible to mention them with too high a praise. I am speaking here specially of New York, though I might say the same of Boston, or of all New England. I do not know any contrast that would be more surprising to an Englishman, up to that moment ignorant of the matter, than that which he would find by visiting, first of all, a free school in London, and then a free school in New York. The female pupil at a free school in London, as a rule, is either a ragged pauper or a charity girl; if not degraded, at least stigmatized by the badges and dress of the charity. We Englishmen know well the type of each, and have a fairly correct idea of the amount of education which is imparted to them. We see the result afterwards when the same girls become our servants, and the wives of our grooms and porters. The female pupil at a free school in New York is neither a pauper nor a charity girl. She is dressed with utmost decency. She is perfectly cleanly. In speaking to her you cannot in any degree guess whether her father has a dollar a day or three thousand dollars a year. Nor will you be enabled to guess by the manner in which her associates treat her. As regards her own manner to you, it is always the same as though her father were, in all respects, your equal.

"As to the amount of her knowledge, I fairly confess that it is terrific. When, in the first room which I visited, a slight, slim creature was had up before me to explain to me the properties of the hypothenuse, I fairly confess that, as regards education, I backed down, and that I resolved to confine my criticisms to manner, dress and general behavior. In the next room I was more at my ease, finding that ancient Roman history was on the tapis. 'Why did the Romans run away with the Sabine women?' asked the mistress, herself a pretty woman of about three-and-twenty. 'Because they were pretty,' simpered out a little girl with a cherry mouth. The answer did not give complete satisfaction; and then followed a somewhat abstruse explanation on the subject of population. It was all done with good faith and serious intent, and showed what it was intended to show,—that the girls there educated had in truth reached the consideration of important subjects, and that they were leagues beyond that terrible repetition of A B C, to which I fear that most of our free metropolitan schools are still necessarily confined. You and I, reader, were we

called on to superintend the education of girls of sixteen, might not select as favorite points either the hypothenuse, or the ancient methods of populating young colonies.

"There may be, and to us on the European side of the Atlantic there will be, a certain amount of absurdity in the transatlantic idea, that all knowledge is knowledge, and that it should be imparted if it be not knowledge of evil. But as to the general result, no fair-minded man or woman can have a doubt. That the lads and girls in these schools are excellently educated, comes home as a fact to the mind of any one who will look into the subject. That girl could not have got as far as the hypothenuse without a competent and abiding knowledge of much that is very far beyond the outside limits of what such girls know with us. It was at least manifest in the other examination that the girls knew as well as I did who were the Romans, and who were the Sabine women. That all this is of use, was shown in the very gestures and bearings of the girl. *Emollit mores*, as Colonel Newcombe used to say. The woman whom I had watched while she cooked her husband's dinner upon the banks of the Mississippi, had doubtless learned all about the Sabine women, and I feel assured that she cooked her husband's dinner all the better for that knowledge,—and faced the hardships of the world with a better front than she would have done had she been ignorant on the subject."

In this speech-making country, Mr. Trollope could not, of course, escape from the school which he has described above, without the release fee of a speech. And his speech seems to have been of a type quite too common in our schools. His mental reserve upon the occasion, in qualification of his remarks, is very instructive. When, amid so many other lessons, shall we learn the great lesson of health?

"At that school," he adds, "I saw some five or six hundred girls collected in one room, and heard them sing. The singing was very pretty, and it was all very nice; but I own that I was rather startled, and to tell the truth somewhat abashed, when I was invited to say a few words to them? No idea of such a suggestion had dawned upon me, and I felt myself quite at a loss. To be called up before five hundred men is bad enough, but how much worse before that number of girls! What could I say, but that they were all very pretty? As far as I can remember, I did say that and nothing else. Very pretty they were, and neatly dressed and attractive; but among them all

there was not a pair of rosy cheeks. How should there be, when every room in the building was heated up to the condition of an oven?"

EXCELLENCE OF AMERICAN EDUCATION.

There is great fairness in the general view which Mr. Trollope takes of the influence and effects of popular education in this country. The traveller is too apt to make his own country the standard by which others are to be tried, and to judge of their institutions and usages by the relations which they sustain to himself, or his class and nation. But, in this case, Mr. T. leaves his personal preferences quite out of the question; and considers the matter in its bearings upon the welfare of the educated,—of the people at large. He accepts fully the Benthamian standard, of "the greatest good to the greatest number;" and admitting this, he is compelled by his clear-sightedness and candor to commend what he does not personally like. His testimony is the more valuable, that it is not the ardent tribute of the philanthropic theorist, but the enforced evidence of the calm observer and cool man of the world. He thus commences a chapter which he entitles "Education and Religion":

"The one matter in which, so far as my judgment goes, the people of the United States have excelled us Englishmen, so as to justify them in taking to themselves praise which we cannot take to ourselves or refuse to them, is the matter of education. In saying this, I do not think that I am proclaiming anything disgraceful to England, though I am proclaiming much that is creditable to America. To the Americans of the States was given the good fortune of beginning at the beginning. The French, at the time of their revolution, endeavored to reorganize everything, and to begin the world again with new habits and grand theories; but the French, as a people, were too old for such a change, and the theories fell to the ground. But in the States, after their revolution, an Anglo-Saxon people had an opportunity of making a new State, with all the experience of the world before them; and to this matter of education they were, from the first, aware that they must look for their success. They did so; and unrivalled population, wealth and intelligence have been the results; and with these, looking at the whole masses of the people,—I think I am justified in saying,—unrivalled comfort and happiness. It is not that you, my reader, to whom in this matter of education, fortune and your parents have probably been bountiful,

would have been more happy in New York than in London. It is not that I, who, at any rate, can read and write, have cause to wish that I had been an American. But it is this:—If you and I can count up in a day all those on whom our eyes may rest, and learn the circumstances of their lives, we shall be driven to conclude that nine-tenths of that number would have had a better life as Americans, than they can have in their spheres as Englishmen. The States are at a discount with us now, in the beginning of this year of grace, 1862; and Englishmen were not very willing to admit the above statement even when the States were not at a discount. But I do not think that a man can travel through the States with his eyes open and not admit the fact. Many things will conspire to induce him to shut his eyes, and admit no conclusion favorable to the Americans. Men and women will sometimes be impudent to him;—the better his coat, the greater the impudence. He will be pelted with the braggadocio of equality. The corns of his Old-World conservatism will be trampled on hourly by the purposefully vicious herd of uncouth democracy. The fact that he is paymaster will go for nothing, and will fail to insure civility."

We cannot but sympathize with Mr. T. in the illustration which he draws from his own experience. Many of us have had experiences similar in kind if not in degree. Yet we cannot admit that the example is quite apropos. For the chances are three to one that the careless, insolent porter was a foreigner, and had never had the benefit of an American education. The most discourteous are, in general, either those who have never learned to be courteous, or those who, conscious of having been depressed, feel that they must now assert their equality, and are afraid that civility would be mistaken for servility. We admire the candor with which the author reasons on the case, supposing, as he does, that he had been ill-used by native Americans.

"I shall never forget my agony, as I saw and heard my desk fall from a porter's hand on a railway station, as he tossed it from him seven yards off on to the hard pavement. I heard its poor weak intestines rattle in their death-struggle, and, knowing that it was smashed, I forgot my position on American soil and remonstrated. 'It's my desk, and you've utterly destroyed it,' I said. 'Ha! ha! ha!' laughed the porter. 'You've destroyed my property,' I rejoined, 'and it's no laughing matter.' And

then all the crowd laughed. 'Guess you'd better get it glued,' said one. So I gathered up the broken article, and retired mournfully and crestfallen into a coach. This was very sad, and for the moment I deplored the ill-luck which had brought me to so savage a country. Such, and such-like, are the incidents which make an Englishman in the States unhappy, and rouse his gall against the institutions of the country;—these things, and the continued appliances of the irritating ointment of American braggadocio, with which his sores are kept open. 'But though I was badly off on that railway platform,—worse off than I should have been in England,—all that crowd of porters round me were better off than our English porters. They had a 'good time' of it. And this, O my English brother who has travelled through the States and returned disgusted, is the fact throughout. Those men, whose familiarity was so disgusting to you, are having a good time of it. 'They might be a little more civil,' you say, 'and yet read and write just as well.' True; but they are arguing in their minds that civility to you will be taken by you for subservience, or for an acknowledgment of superiority; and looking at your habits of life,—yours and mine together.—I am not quite sure that they are altogether wrong. Have you ever realized to yourself as a fact that the porter who carries your box has not made himself inferior to you by the very act of carrying that box? If not, that is the very lesson which the man wishes to teach you.

"If a man can forget his own miseries in his journeyings, and think of the people he comes to see rather than of himself, I think he will find himself driven to admit that education has made life for the million in the Northern States better than life for the million is with us. They have begun at the beginning, and have so managed that every one may learn to read and write,—have so managed that almost every one does learn to read and write. With us this cannot now be done. Population had come upon us in masses too thick for management, before we had as yet acknowledged that it would be a good thing that these masses should be educated. Prejudices, too, had sprung up, and habits, and strong sectional feelings, all antagonistic to a great national system of education. We are, I suppose, now doing all that we can do; but comparatively it is little.

"I think I saw, some time since, that the cost for gratuitous education, or education in

part gratuitous, which had fallen upon the nation, had already amounted to the sum of £800,000; and I think also that I read, in the document which revealed to me this fact, a very strong opinion that government could not at present go much further. But, if this matter were regarded in England as it is regarded in Massachusetts,—or rather had it from some prosperous beginning been put upon a similar footing, £800,000 would not have been esteemed a great expenditure for free education simply in the city of London. In 1857, the public schools of Boston cost £70,000, and these schools were devoted to a population of about 180,000 souls. Taking the population of London at two-and-a-half millions, the whole sum now devoted to England would, if expended in the metropolis, make education there even cheaper than it is in Boston. In Boston, during 1857, there were above twenty-four thousand pupils at these public schools, giving more than one-eighth of the whole population. But I fear it would not be practicable for us to spend £800,000 on the gratuitous education of London. Rich as we are, we should not know where to raise the money. In Boston it is raised by a separate tax. It is a thing understood, acknowledged, and made easy by being habitual,—as is our national debt. I do not know that Boston is peculiarly blessed; but I quote the instance, as I have the record of its schools before me."

SCHOOLS IN BOSTON.

The mirthful spirit of the following sketch does not in the least impair its value. "Why," says Horace, "may not a man tell the truth, and yet have his laugh?" We cannot hesitate in identifying the school of "young Brahmins;" and I could myself, from my own experience in the other school, more than parallel the Miltonian discussion, which our author found so very entertaining.

"At the three high schools in Boston, at which the average of pupils is five hundred and twenty-six, about £13 per head is paid for free education. The average price per annum of a child's schooling throughout these schools in Boston is about £3 per annum. To the higher schools any boy or girl may attain without any expense, and the education is probably as good as can be given, and as far advanced. The only question is, whether it is not advanced further than may be necessary. Here, as in New York, I was almost startled by the amount of knowledge around me, and listened, as I might

ve done to an examination in theology among Brahmins. When a young lad explained in my hearing all the properties of the different levers as exemplified by the bones of the man body, I bowed my head before him in uncted humility. We, at our English schools, ver got beyond the use of those bones which described with such accurate scientific knowledge.

"In one of the girls' schools, they were reading Milton; and, when we entered, were discussing the nature of the pool in which the evil is described as wallowing. The question had been raised by one of the girls: a pool, so called, was supposed to contain but a small amount of water; and how could the Devil, being so large, get into it? Then came the origin of the word *pool*, — from 'palus,' a *marsh*. We were told, some dictionary attempting to the fact, — and such a marsh might cover a large panse. The 'Palus Mœotis' was then quoted. And so we went on, till Satan's theory of litical liberty,

Better to reign in hell than serve in heaven."

As thoroughly discussed and understood. These girls of sixteen and seventeen got up one after another, and gave their opinions on the subject, — how far the Devil was right, and how far he was manifestly wrong. I was attended by one of the directors or guardians of the schools, and the teacher, I thought, was a little embarrassed by her position. But the girls themselves were as easy in their demeanor though they were stitching handkerchiefs at me.

"It is impossible to refrain from telling all this, and from making a little innocent fun out of the superexcellencies of these schools; but the total result on my mind was very greatly in their favor. And, indeed, the testimony came both ways. Not only was I called on to form an opinion of what the men and women could become from the education which was given to the boys and girls, but also to say what might have been the education of the boys and girls from what I saw of the men and women.

Of course it will be understood that I am not speaking of those I met in society, or of the idle children, but of the working people, — of that class who find that a gratuitous education for their children is needful, if any considerable amount of education is to be given. The result is to be seen daily in the whole intercourse of life. The coachman who drives you, the man who mends your window, the boy who

brings home your purchases, the girl who stitches your wife's dress, — they all carry with them sure signs of education, and show it in every word they utter."

RESULTS OF THE SCHOOLS.

"So much for the schools, and now for the results. I do not know that anything impresses a visitor more strongly with the amount of books sold in the States, than the practice of selling them as it has been adopted in the railway cars. Personally, the traveller will find the system very disagreeable, — as is everything connected with these cars. [But we need not copy a description of what is so familiar to us all.] * * * But the numbers of the popular books of the day, printed and sold, afford the most conclusive proof of the extent to which education is carried in the States. The readers of Tennyson, Thackeray, Dickens, Bulwer, Collins, Hughes and Martin Tupper, are to be counted by tens of thousands in the States, to the thousands by which they may be counted in our own islands. I do not doubt that I had fully fifteen copies of the 'Silver Cord' thrown at my head in different railway cars on the continent of America. Nor is the taste by any means confined to the literature of England. Longfellow, Curtis, Holmes, Hawthorne, Lowell, Emerson and Mrs. Stowe are almost as popular as their English rivals. I do not say whether or no the literature is well chosen, but where it is. It is printed, sold and read. The disposal of ten thousand copies of a work is no large sale in America of a book published at a dollar; but in England it is a large sale of a book brought out at five shillings.

"I do not remember that I ever examined the rooms of an American without finding books or magazines in them. I do not speak here of the houses of my friends, as of course the same remark would apply as strongly in England, but of the houses of persons presumed to earn their bread by the labor of their hands. * * * A porter or a farmer's servant in the States is not proud of reading and writing. It is to him quite a matter of course. The coachmen on their boxes and the boots as they sit in the halls of the hotels, have newspapers constantly in their hands. The young women have them also, and the children. The fact comes home to one at every turn, and at every hour, that the people are an educated people. The whole of this question between North and South is as well understood by the servants as by their masters, is discussed as vehemently by the pri-

vate soldiers as by the officers. The politics of the country and the nature of its constitution are familiar to every laborer. The very wording of the Declaration of Independence is in the memory of every lad of sixteen. Boys and girls of a younger age than that know why Sildell and Mason were arrested, and will tell you why they should have been given up, or why they should have been held in durance. The question of the war with England is debated by every native pavior and hodman of New York.

"I know what Englishmen will say in answer to this. They will declare that they do not want their paviors and hodmen to talk politics; that they are as well pleased that their coachmen and cooks should not always have a newspaper in their hands; that private soldiers will fight as well, and obey better, if they are not trained to discuss the causes which have brought them into the field. An English gentleman will think that his gardener will be a better gardener without than with any excessive political ardor; and the English lady will prefer that her housemaid shall not have a very pronounced opinion of her own as to the capabilities of the cabinet ministers. But I would submit to all Englishmen and Englishwomen who may look at these pages, whether such an opinion or feeling on their part bears much, or even at all, upon the subject. I am not saying that the man who is driven in the coach is better off because his coachman reads the paper, but that the coachman himself who reads the paper is better off than the coachman who does not and cannot. I think that we are too apt, in considering the ways and habits of any people, to judge of them by the effect of those ways and habits on us, rather than by their effects on the owners of them. * * * When we express a dislike to the shoeboy reading his newspaper, I fear we do so because we fear that the shoeboy is coming near our own heels. I know there is among us a strong feeling that the lower classes are better without politics, as there is also that they are better without crinoline and artificial flowers; but, if politics and crinoline and artificial flowers are good at all, they are good for all who can honestly come by them and honestly use them. The political coachman is perhaps less valuable to his master as a coachman than he would be without his politics, but he with his politics is more valuable to himself. For myself, I do not like the Americans of the lower orders. I am not comfortable

among them. They tread on my corns and offend me. They make my daily life unpleasant. But I do respect them. I acknowledge their intelligence and personal dignity. I know that they are men and women worthy to be so called. I see that they are living as human beings in possession of reasoning faculties; and I perceive that *they owe this to the progress that education has made among them.*"

What a conquest over personal feeling and national prejudice! A testimony like this is precious to us when we are in danger of depreciating our work; or when we are sad from the feeling, how feeble are our efforts and imperfect our success, in comparison with our aspirations. It is specially interesting at the present time to see how closely the reasoning of many Englishmen against the enlightenment of the "lower orders" tallies with the reasoning of most Southerners and even some Northerners against the freedom, education and elevation of the colored race in this country. The reasoning, let it assume what guise it may, is all selfish. One inference more from our author's picture. Will the ruin of such a nation be permitted? Will they be left, as their enemies predict, to "go to the wall?" May we not adopt our author's assurance?

"I venture to express an opinion that they will by no means go to the wall, and that they will be saved from such a destiny, if in no other way, then by their EDUCATION."

For the Schoolmaster.

Origin and Progress of the English Language.—No. 3.

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We have said that the Goths were found, in the century preceding the Christian era, as far west as the river Rhine. They may have advanced thus far at a much earlier period, but we are able to learn but little of them until the times of Cæsar and Tacitus.

About 1400 B. C. it is said that the Goths were found upon the shores of the Caspian Sea. They seem to have originated on the table-lands of Asia, east and south of the Caspian. Increasing in numbers and spreading towards the west, they entered Europe, passing between the Ural mountains and the Caspian Sea. The region south of the Black Sea had, at this time, become too densely peopled to permit the passage of nomadic tribes from Central Asia to Europe south of this sea.

Granting that they could advance beyond the Caspian, the icy mountains of Georgia and Circassia, that stretch from the Black Sea to the Caspian, would have prevented their entering Europe by this route. A shepherd people, in their early migrations, shun cold and barren mountains; they people more inviting regions, and spread over lowlands and along the valleys.

The surface of the country, and the scanty facts of history we can collect, lead us to conclude that the Gothic race entered Europe north of the Caspian.

About 600 B. C. they were found in Europe. In the eastern part of Europe they seem to have divided; one division moving steadily westward, peopling Central Europe, pressing the Celts before them, until, in the century preceding the Christian era, they were found as far west as the Rhine and as far south as the Danube. This division was again divided into the Visigoths and Ostrogoths—the western and eastern. Very often the name Germani was applied to them, because Germania was the name of a large portion of Central Europe.

The other division of the Goths seem to have proceeded northwest, to the Scandinavian peninsula. The descendants of this division were called Scandinavians.

We have said that the Germani, or Goths, at different times attempted the conquest of Italy; as early as 58 B. C. they attempted to occupy Gaul, but were driven back by Cæsar and his legions. They were compelled to recross the Rhine, and content themselves with their former forests and pasturage. At this early period, nothing but the martial spirit of the Romans and the discipline of their forces prevented their inroads into Gaul and Italy. They always hung on the frontier of the Empire like wolves, eager for pillage and plunder. The Romans, for the most part, successfully resisted them, until, weakened by luxury, vice and civil strife, early in the fifth century, the opulent Empire of the Cæsars became a prey to their violence.

Many writers maintain that those Gothic tribes that passed into England originally belonged to the Scandinavian branch of the Goths. Later researches have furnished good evidence that these tribes were mostly from the German branch of the Goths. Before we trace their conquests in Britain we may notice briefly some of the general features of Gothic society.

Cæsar, who encountered these Germans in battle, wrote that they were very different from

the Celts in their manners and customs; that they neither had Druids, who presided over civil and religious affairs, nor were they in the habit of performing sacrifices;—that they considered as Gods those great objects and bodies of Nature from which they received direct aid; as the sun and moon, the earth and fire;—that they spent most of their time in hunting and in the pursuits of war, paying little attention to agriculture.

They had no fixed bounds to their fields. Their magistrates and leaders assigned them their fields annually. They gave many reasons for this brief tenure of the soil: one was, because they feared that by remaining in one place they should acquire a fondness for agriculture, and become less fond of war; another, lest they should become desirous of extending their fields and the more powerful should expel the weaker from their possessions; another, lest they should construct better dwellings, and, protecting themselves from the summer's heat and the winter's cold, should become effeminate; another, lest the desire for money should increase, from which arise factions and strife. An equal distribution of lands they considered an excellent defence against envy and civil strife. In time of war, they chose the most skillful and the bravest of their number for their leader. The general conduct of the war was entrusted to him, and the lives of his men were at his disposal.

Those tribes had the most glory who surrounded themselves with the widest extent of country depopulated by their arms.

Their government was democratic, and had for its object mutual protection. They scorned restraint, and considered nothing so valuable as individual freedom and civil liberty. Among such a people monarchy could not exist. The power of their leaders to control them was the result of the personal superiority of the leaders, and of the attachment of the people to them. They respected and obeyed them because of the ability of these leaders, in war to defend them, and in peace to execute their common laws. Superior valor was the passport to office.

The love of liberty, which has ever been so characteristic of the Anglo-Saxons, appeared in its full strength in the public and private affairs of their ancestors, the Goths.

The free institutions we this day enjoy are the offspring of those rude customs and simple laws by which, more than two thousand years ago, the Goths secured their civil liberty. This race, in the various stages of its history, has

taken the lead in developing the principles of national, municipal and individual rights.

Another characteristic of the Gothic tribes was the high respect paid to the female sex in all the social relations of life. They "treated their women with esteem and confidence, consulted them on every occasion of importance, and fondly believed that in their breasts resided a sanctity and wisdom more than human." During the middle ages this trait of Gothic character was developed more fully in the institutions of Chivalry.

The writings of Tacitus delineate many of the religious rites of the Goths inhabiting Germany, but the religion of those dwelling in the north of Europe is best known.

The religion of the Goths was very simple; it never degenerated into so great confusion as the religion of the nations of the south of Europe. The Goths seem to have had a distinct notion of one Supreme Being, who was assisted in the government of the world by several genii, or inferior deities.

The name of their chief God was Woden, or Odin. One day of the week was especially consecrated to him, under the name of Woden's day; from this we have Wednesday.

Frea, a goddess, and the wife of Odin, was one of the principal deities worshipped by those inhabiting the peninsula of Denmark. She received an honor similar to that of Odin: Frea's day is still enrolled among the days of the week as Friday.

A third divinity of the Scandinavians was Thor. He had control of the phenomena of the atmosphere. In his airy realm he guided the tempests and storms, and, like Jupiter among the Greeks and Romans, was the god of thunder and lightning. One day of the week bears the name of this divinity, as Thor's day, Thursday.

Tuesday takes its name from Tuisco, the Mars of our ancestors — the deity that presided over combats, strife and litigation.

Saturday, Saturn's day; Sunday, Sun day; Monday, Moon day, still commemorate the veneration of our ancestors for these heavenly bodies.

Military prowess was a prime virtue, and death upon the field of battle a sure passport to the halls of Odin. Many dreaded a natural death; to die fighting was to die honorably and safely. Some one has remarked, that in killing others they only did to others as they wished

others to do to them, and thus fulfilled the golden rule.

Their sentiments concerning death are often found in their poetry. King Lodbrog, it is said, when about to die, far from uttering groans or forming complaints, expressed his joy in these verses: "We are cut to pieces with swords; but this fills me with joy, when I think of the feast that is preparing for me in Odin's palace. Quickly, quickly, seated in the splendid habitation of the gods, we shall drink beer out of the skulls of our enemies. A brave man fears not to die; I shall utter no timorous words as I enter the hall of Odin."

But little is known of the language of the ancient Scandinavians. The specimens of their written language, found in different parts of Sweden and Norway, have been a source of much speculation with the learned. Their ancient letters were sixteen in number, made up mostly of straight lines, and were well adapted to engraving on stone or wood, and for this purpose they were originally employed. They were very unlike the Greek or Roman letters, and were often written in a serpentine manner. These characters were called Runes, from the old root run or runa, meaning a furrow or line.

The first Gothic alphabet of which we have any satisfactory knowledge is that prepared and arranged by Bishop Ulfilas. A portion of the Goths, inhabiting Dacia, were partially Christianized by the efforts of the early Christians; these Goths were hard pressed by stronger tribes on the north and east. In the year 376, the good bishop obtained permission from the Emperor Valens for these Goths to cross the Danube and settle in Mæcia. It is said that "the Mæc goths became his beloved children on earth; to them he preached the gospel of his Lord during a long life of suffering and resignation, and, for their benefit, he crowned his labors of love by inventing or forming a series of letters, adapted to their, as yet, unwritten language." A version of the Scriptures was the result of his skill and toil. This was the first translation into a Gothic tongue, and is one of those monuments of individual effort that ever claim for their authors universal praise. Most of his letters were chosen from the Greek; a few were taken from the Roman and Runic. This alphabet was generally adopted among the Goths. The present alphabet of the Germans, it is said, is but a modified form of the alphabet of Uphilas. A part of this translation is now preserved at Upsala, Sweden, in

the University Library. It is very valuable, because it exhibits these venerable letters in their original form. It is written upon purple parchment, with silver letters. It is called *Codex Argenteus*. The language of this version—the *Mæso-Gothic*—is the common source of the *Anglo-Saxon* and *Germanic* languages. It is of much interest and importance to us, both because of the relations it sustains to the modern languages of Europe, and because of its intrinsic excellence. In its wealth of inflection it is not unlike the Greek, while its power of derivation and composition endows it with the same capacities of development and culture that characterize its offspring, the modern German.

We now return to the proposition before stated, viz.: That "a few years after the dominion of the Romans ended in the island of Britain the country was in great part taken possession of and occupied by certain tribes of Gothic race, whose descendants have ever since formed the bulk of its population." We have noticed that the fear of northern foes induced the Britons to seek and secure the aid of the Goths; these Gothic tribes, having aided the Britons in expelling the Picts and Scots from their soil, turned against the Britons, and, by prolonged and bloody contests, at length wrested from the Celts, or Britons, the greater part of their possessions in England. The history of the time and place of these invasions of Gothic tribes is not as fully authenticated as we could wish; the account generally considered correct is this: The Jutes, from Jutland, originally from Scandinavia, under the brothers Hengist and Horsa, in 449, settled in Kent and the Isle of Wight, and in a part of Hampshire. The first division of the Saxons invaded the island under Ella in 477, and the second under Cerdic in 495. They settled in that part of the country south of the Thames and the Bristol Avon, and also in Middlesex, and the southern part of Hertford. The first body of the Angles came over the North Sea and settled in the island in 527; but their principal host arrived under Ida in 547. The Angles took possession of the territory lying between the south part of the island, which had previously been occupied by the Jutes and Saxons, and the Forth and the Clyde. The Angles gave name to the south part of the island; this name was at first *Angle-land*; it was afterwards shortened to *England*.

The Angles and Saxons blended, forming one people; they killed great numbers of the Celts,

and drove the remainder into the wilds and fastnesses of Wales. They completely occupied the eastern part of England, as their descendants have the eastern part of America. The Celts and the Indians have left behind them in the English language scarcely enough of their own to secure for the natives of either country a lasting memorial in the language of their conquerors.

The Angles and Saxons were warriors and freebooters, but when we consider their valor, their energy and the many manly virtues they possessed, we may justly consider that they belonged to the best portions of the Gothic race.

The various bodies of the old Celtic population maintained their independence all along the west side of the island, in Cumbria, North and South Wales and Cornwall.

We now see why it is that the language of Wales differs from that of England; the Welsh are of Celtic descent and speak a Celtic language. The language of the people of Cornwall was, for a long time, quite unlike the English, but the old language has gradually yielded, so that at present the language of Cornwall is very nearly the same as that of the rest of England. The place from which the Angles and Saxons migrated is not easily determined; Prof. Childs, in his edition of Latliam's Grammar, states what seems to be supposed by reliable authority: "It is commonly stated that the particular part of the continent of Europe from which the English language was introduced into England, was that tract which extends from the peninsula of Jutland, in the Kingdom of Denmark, to the mouth of the Rhine, in Holland; but a more critical examination of the subject makes it probable that the part of Europe from which the language came into England coincides with the present Kingdom of Hanover."

The Saxons were from the German branch of Goths. It is yet a matter of dispute whether the Angles were originally from Scandinavia or Germany; some maintain that the Angles can be traced to the Scandinavian, but later evidence seems to identify them with the German branch of the Goths; but the sons of the north were destined to share the soil of England with their German cousins. During the ninth century, the Danes, originally a Scandinavian people, made extensive settlements and conquests in the north of England. During the reign of King Alfred, which began in 872, the Danes threatened the conquest of all England; Al-

fred conquered them in several battles, and by wise and prudent measures, made them his obedient subjects. Alfred was however succeeded by weaker and less prudent Saxon kings, and England was again invaded by devastating armies from Denmark and Scandinavia. In 1013, the conquest of all England was effected by the Danish king, Sweyn; and the crown continued in the possession of his descendants till 1042. At that time the Saxon line of kings was again restored; but, during the period of Danish dominion the laws continued to be promulgated for the English in their own tongue. The language of the Danes did not differ widely from the language of the Angles and Saxons, and did not modify it to any considerable extent, but readily blended with it. Had the language of these invaders wholly differed from that of the Anglo-Saxons, we may suppose that the superior numbers of the Anglo-Saxons would have rendered their language superior to Danish influences.

J. C. G.

Quarterly Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools, Providence.

To the School Committee of the City of Providence:

GENTLEMEN:—Our system of public education has now become so thoroughly established and so complete in all its details, that the character and condition of our schools must, of necessity, continue nearly uniform from term to term. No important changes have occurred since the last quarterly meeting of the School Committee. Thus far our schools have suffered less from the fearful calamities that have befallen our distracted country than we had reason to expect.

The Grammar Schools were never more prosperous and efficient than they are at present. They are not surpassed by any schools of the same grade that I have ever seen. The male department of the High School has suffered the most. Two of its faithful teachers, obedient to the call of duty, have left temporarily their posts and gone forth to fight the battles of freedom. And a large number of pupils have also left the school,—some to enlist, and others to supply the places of those who had enlisted.

The Intermediate and Primary Schools are, with a few exceptions, gradually improving, both in their discipline and in their methods of instruction. There are a few that are decidedly poor, and will doubtless continue so till they have better teachers. An earnest, faith-

ful teacher, who is ever availing himself of all the means and opportunities for his own improvement, will, under any and all circumstances, have a good school. But one who is indifferent to all progress in the science of teaching—which is one of the most important of all sciences—and who in his own estimation knows already all that is worth knowing, and is anxious for nothing but to retain his place with the least possible effort, will most assuredly fail, and the sooner such are transferred to some other sphere of duty, the better will it be for our youth. None but those who have made the comparison can estimate rightly the vast difference between an efficient and an inefficient school.

The rate of progress in our Intermediate and Primary Schools will ever be just in proportion to the amount of time that is spent in drilling each pupil in his lessons; and this is nearly ten times as great in some schools as in others of the same grade. So long as teachers persist in the old fashioned mode assigning lessons to young children to train to read or spell, before they had learned to pronounce the words correctly, so long we shall have schools that are almost worthless.

There has been in some of our schools a marked improvement the past term. Much attention has been given to penmanship and the results show conclusively how much can be accomplished, even in a short time, by well-directed efforts.

Some teachers seem to have become wise, also, in regard to discipline, and appear to have learned the very first lesson on this subject—which is self-government. Cases of corporeal punishment have become much less frequent and less severe. Instead of resorting at once to the infliction of bodily pain, the cooperation of parents has been solicited, and in most cases secured. There is no test so significant and so satisfactory of a teacher's devotion to his work as his increasing ability to govern his school well without much corporeal punishment.

The most prominent defect that I have noticed in our schools, is, that composition and declamation are too much neglected—this is the case particularly in our grammar schools.—There should be in every school, a weekly exercise either of the one or the other. The acquisition of knowledge by the pupil, has engrossed almost entirely the teacher's attention, while the ability to use it effectively has been too much overlooked. This should be remedied without delay—for there is no truth better established by observation, than that a man's

usefulness and success in any sphere of life depends far less upon the extent of his knowledge, than upon his ability to use all he possesses with the greatest effect.

I cannot close without repeating what I have said in all my former reports, that our schools are suffering more from the evils of truancy than from all other causes combined. Nothing has yet been done effectually to check this frightful source of misery and crime. Could a true picture of the rapid increase of youthful depravity be portrayed, in all its appalling colors, it could not but startle and astonish every friend to humanity and to social order. The seed now being sown will produce in coming years a most terrible harvest. Short-sighted must be that policy, independent of all moral considerations, that hesitates to spend a few hundred dollars in the prevention of crime, rather than incur, with all the risks of life and property, the expenditure of thousands in punishing it, and in retrieving the miseries that follow in its train.

A larger number of pupils have been registered in our schools the past term than ever before. The whole number is 8095. Of these 3558 have entered the primary schools; 2152 the intermediate; 1971 the grammar, and 314 the high school. Owing to causes which it is unnecessary to state, the percentage of absence has been much larger than usual. It is to be hoped that no outlay for additional accommodations will be required the present year.

All of which is respectfully submitted,
DANIEL LEACH, Superintendent.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Glance at South America.—No. 4.

THE PATAGONIAN ANDES.

THE principal mountain system of the Western Continent is greater in extent than any other upon the globe. It stretches from the shores of the Arctic Ocean, in North America, to Cape Horn, in South America, extending over one hundred degrees of latitude, across three zones and into the fourth. Its extremities are clad in the garb of frigidity, while its central portions regale themselves with the luxuriance and beauty of the tropics. In height and magnificence it is scarcely surpassed by any elevations upon the Eastern Continent, and in the multitude and power of its stupendous volcanoes, an equal area upon any part of the earth's surface has no parallel. They are confined, chiefly, to the Andes portion of this vast chain, a few only being found in the Mexican Cordilleras.

We will begin at its southern extremity, where the writer has, on more than one occasion, experienced the severities of the furious gales, the blinding snows and biting frosts of Cape Horn. This bold promontory is a perpendicular wall of naked rock, rising abruptly from the water, to the height of six hundred feet: time-worn and grey in its appearance, but grandly sublime in its contests with the storm-maddened surges of both oceans.

The appearance of this part of the Andes is very remarkable. Elevated peaks are separated from each other by deep gorges, into which the turbulent waters rush, thus forming an archipelago of inconceivable wildness. The islands are penetrated in every direction by deep, narrow inlets, the extremities of which are fed by glaciers, formed from the snows upon the summits of peaks six thousand feet high.

This group of islands, the largest of which is Terra Del Fuego, is nearly equal in size to all New England, and is separated from the main land by the Strait of Magellan, which is only a deep gorge in the mountains, filled by the sea. The rocks, for the most part, are granite, as are all the Patagonian Andes as far north as southern Peru. In fact, the basis of the whole of South America is granite, but the loftiest peaks are almost entirely composed of trachyte. Mingled with the granite, and appearing to be a sort of transition formation, is mica, schist and quartz, the latter rich in gold and specular iron.

The Andes extend along the Pacific coast for one thousand miles; the whole distance being skirted with numerous islands, which are nothing less than steep parallel ridges of mountains, the tops of which are above the ocean. They rise like walls of rock, whose sides extend down to unfathomable depths below the surface of the water. Huge masses of ice, from the glaciers, which abound among the mountain valleys, often fall with a tremendous crash into these gulches, and drive the sea in immense waves through the gloomy chasms. It would be difficult to conceive a more forbidding and desolate region, one where animal or vegetable life would find so little encouragement to grow; yet in some of the lower valleys of the Patagonian Andes, we find vegetation, and what is stranger still, a race of savage beings, who, although human in form, are little, if any, above the wild brutes that supply them with food and clothing.

The Andes form one vast and continuous

chain, until it reaches the Nevado of Chorolque, in twenty-one and a half degrees southern latitude, when it separates into longitudinal ridges, enclosing a series of elevated table lands or plateaus, and bound together by transverse ridges, extending from one chain to the other, thus forming a frame work of the most gigantic structure. In this single chain are situated some of the loftiest peaks of South America. In latitude thirty-two degrees thirty-nine minutes south, rises the great giant of the Western Continent, the Nevado of Aconcagua, nearly twenty-four thousand feet high. South of that are the elevated peaks of Doña Ana, sixteen thousand feet, and Tupungato, fifteen thousand feet high. Volcanoes are numerous along the entire coast from forty-five degrees northward. Many of them are intermittent, but between forty-two and thirty-three degrees of south latitude, are not less than five, in a state of constant activity.

The Island of Chiloe is separated from the main land by a long, narrow strait, which extends, in the form of a fertile valley, between a ridge of crystalline hills, bordering the Pacific, and the main chain of the Andes; or rather, the valley is a continuation of the strait. This valley is the garden of the Chilian Republic, being well watered by rivers which descend from the central chain. It contains the provinces of Santiago, Talca, Cauquenes and Concepcion.

Upon the eastern side of this chain are the head waters of some of the Atlantic rivers. The Pilcomayo, with its head branches, Rio de Toropalca and Rio de St. Juan,—the Rio Salado and Rio del Rosario, are all tributaries of the Paraguay. The Colorado, with its two head branches, the Rio Negro, which separates the pampas from the Patagonian deserts without receiving a single tributary, run directly from the Andes to the ocean. The latter, with some smaller streams, traverse the shingly deserts, without fertilizing the land upon either side, a phenomenon which I believe is repeated in the passage of some of the western tributaries of the Mississippi across the plains from the Rocky Mountains.

The division of the Andean chain now forms the rich and populous valley of Desaguadero, one of the most interesting districts in South America, the consideration of which I will reserve for the next paper.

There is no such thing as a conflict of duties. G. off.—SWIFT.

For the Schoolmaster.

Winter Thoughts.

IN the midnight, when the firelight
Casts its shadows drear,
And the winds of chill December
Mourn the dying year;

When the days are swiftly waning,
Memories hover o'er,
Dear to those who strew life's pathway
With the thoughts of yore.

He, who once in youth's bright morning,
With protecting arm,
Vowed to shield me from all trouble,
Keep me from all harm,

Prostrate by the fell destroyer,
Stands before me now,
And a halo bright of glory
Circles o'er his brow.

At his side a loved one, taken
From earth's stormy sea,
Speaks in soft and gentle whisper,
"Mother, come to me."

Child and husband went before me,
I shall follow soon,
And beyond the heavenly portal
See eternal noon.

SMITHFIELD, Nov. 17th, 1862.

CHARLES F. HALL, the Arctic explorer, represents the Esquimaux in a light far more favorable than former travellers. He says they are industrious and honest; have no laws and need none; are energetic, resolute, daring and persevering beyond any other people. As an indication of their intelligence, he states that there is scarcely a child two feet high among them that cannot read. Their power of enduring hunger is amazing, so that they go without food days and even weeks.

A NEW VIEW OF THE PRESENT WAR—"O dear!" exclaimed, the other day, a bright girl, who had just entered the high school and had to commit two pages of ancient history a day, "I pity the generations of scholars who are to come after me." Why? asked we. "Because they will have to remember so many more names of officers and places, dates of battles and numbers of killed, wounded and missing."

LET no man who has neglected to improve his mind in youth complain that he is made a drudge or an underling in his maturer years.

REASON is a very light rider, and easily shook

Natural Science.

COMMUNICATIONS for this Department should be addressed to I. F. CADY, Warren.

For the Schoolmaster.

A Peep into the Dook.—No. 10.

ALL who frequent the shores of the Narragansett are familiar with the *Pyrula Caniculate*, commonly called the Periwinkle. This is the largest *gasteropod* in our waters, attaining a length of from six to eight or more inches, and a weight of several pounds. They are almost always to be found, partly imbedded in the mud, beyond low-water mark, sometimes in considerable numbers. They are used to some extent for the table. Until they have attained to a considerable age, their shells are covered with a skin thickly set with short and soft olive-brown hair, which might easily be mistaken for a coating of moss. At a later period this skin begins to peel off, so that it is difficult to find the full grown shells with the skin entire. Frequently they are found nearly or quite naked. Their forms are graceful, otherwise they have but little to recommend them to the eye. The *Family* to which they belong, (*Pyrulidae*), are distinguished from all the other similar *Gasteropods* by their long neck, occupying, when extended, a canal formed by the prolongation of the opercular extremity of the shell. They also have a long retractile proboscis. The tongue, with its backward proloagation, which is sometimes called the "lingual ribbon," is a very efficient instrument in the preparation of food for its owner.

One which I took from a moderate-sized specimen and prepared as an object for the microscope, presents an almost formidable appearance. It is nearly three inches in length, and, throughout its entire extent, it is armed with three parallel ranges of stout and very sharp conical teeth. In each of these ranges the teeth are arranged, three abreast, at short intervals and with the utmost regularity. The teeth in the central range are straight; those in each of the marginal ranges are curved, resembling, in shape, the tusk of an elephant. This lingual ribbon I found rolled up into the form of a tube, in passing through which the animal's food must be reduced to an impalpable degree of fineness. No mill has ever been constructed by human ingenuity that can grind so perfectly as that which each of these creatures carries about with it, ready for the most perfect action whenever circumstances may require. It demands considerable delicacy of manipulation to prepare the tongues of these creatures, and those of snails and other mollusks, for microscopic observation; but the gratification secured and the knowledge gained are an ample remuneration for all the pains required. Their structure is best observed under polarized light; in fact, it is difficult to gain a satisfactory knowledge of it by common light.

But one of the most curious facts in respect to the *Pyrula* is its mode of depositing its eggs, or spawn. The clusters are not unfrequently found thrown upon the shore by the tide, and by the superficial observer would be pronounced guiltless of animal origin. They have the appearance of being the result of morbid or abnormal vegetable growth, having, at the closest, no greater resemblance to animal products than the excrescences and galls, found on shrubs and trees, which contain the eggs and larvæ of various insects. They were first brought to me several years ago by some of my pupils, who called them Periwinkles. I had no suspicion of their animal origin, and was disposed to doubt the theory that regarded them as the eggs of shell fish. A more careful examination, however, proved the theory correct.

Their structure is remarkable. They consist of a large number of thickened, elliptical discs, with a longitudinal axis of nearly one-and-a-half inches, and a transverse axis of about three-fourths of an inch. These are attached, at one extremity of their transverse axis, to a central cord, around which they are arranged spirally, and sufficiently close together to remain loosely in contact. The general appearance of the spirals very much resembles the paper "serpent whirlers," which children sometimes suspend in an ascending current of heated air, for instance over a hot stove, and which are quite amusing by their serpent-like appearance as they revolve with the force of the heated current. Each disc consists of two thin, tough membranes, with veins, resembling those of a leaf, radiating from the point of attachment, as from a petiole. These membranes are bent abruptly and united at their edges, presenting a bevelled appearance, and terminating in a narrow, wavy margin. Thus each disc is really a flattened sack, containing a collection of embryo Periwinkles. As they approach maturity, on being opened, they present to view a number of beautiful and perfectly formed shells, which their little tenants eventually carry with them as they escape through openings made near the margin of the disc.

The color of these spirals so much resembles that of the olive fucoids as to aid considerably in misleading the observer in regard to their origin. There is little to indicate their true nature except the animal organisms which they contain. Indeed, after I had become convinced in regard to the object of their existence, I still inclined to question whether their main structure was not vegetable, in some way changed in its mode of growth, through the influence of the Periwinkle in depositing its eggs upon some marine plant, as we often see the normal growth of vegetables changed to afford lodgment and support to the eggs and larvæ of insects. I well recollect my surprise, when a boy, on breaking open some large, green balls that I found growing near the roots of a walnut tree, to find them to contain countless numbers of

gnats, most of which were ready to take wing when the door was opened. From appearance merely, the spirals of the Periwinkles were as likely to be of a vegetable nature as the galls upon the walnut tree. In fact, I was not able to solve all doubt by personal observation until the last summer. All the specimens of the spirals that I had previously seen were either those found washed up on the beach, or shown to me by persons who had found them in the same situation. In August last I had the satisfaction of finding them where they had been deposited by the parent mollusk. One of these is now before me, which I found on a gently sloping bottom, about a rod below low-water mark. The place was destitute of vegetation except the finer growths of Algae, so that the spiral could not have been formed by changing the natural growth of a sea plant. The lower end was anchored in the mud to the depth of six inches, and was attached to a broken shell, so that it adhered quite firmly, and required some care for its safe removal. The upper end was left to sway back and forth with the tide. Its entire length is twenty inches, and it makes five entire revolutions in the course of its length, four of which belong to the upper half. The portion embedded in the mud is straight, the spiral commencing just above. It contains eighty-eight disks, sixteen of which were in the mud, more scattered than the rest, and mostly destitute of embryos. I have not arrived at a satisfactory estimate of the number of young animals produced from each sark, but think that one thousand would be a moderate estimate for the number produced from one spiral. At the lowest estimate, the mother *Pyrula* must, in the course of a few years, reckon a numerous progeny. Fortunately for the parents of these large families, they are not taxed with the task of their support or education. Were they subject to this burden, what might be properly enough regarded as "too much of a good thing" might render the lot of these denizens of the "*blue below*" slightly unenviable. Very few comparatively, however, of the young Periwinkles probably ever arrive at maturity. Cast upon the shore, in their embryo state, by the stormy wave,—falling a prey in large numbers, in their infancy, to rapacious enemies, and constantly exposed to perils, the hosts that threatened to seize the dominion of the sea are diminished so as only to maintain their numbers in due proportion, and to preserve the equilibrium of races which has been ordained by their common Author. In view of such an illustration, which is far from being the most forcible to be found in the walks of Nature, we are impressively admonished of the superior wisdom of the Creator, where, searching by the dim torchlight of human reason, we might at first decide that we had found evidence of its opposite.

I. F. C.

If you fall into misfortune, creep out of it, avoiding the briars.

THE EARTH WORM—ITS USE.—Reaumur calculated that the number of worms in the earth exceed the grains of all kinds of corn used by man, and as, perhaps, there is no other animal so preyed upon without any diminution in number as the earthworm, the calculation may not be far wrong. Hedgehogs, frogs and moles devour it; beetles prey upon it and often cast their young upon it—and but for the earthworm a large portion of the bird family would soon deteriorate or perish, for, with the exception of the finches, there is scarcely a bird, from the robin to the wild-geese, but eats, and many, during open weather, live almost solely upon it. After a summer shower, the farm-yard ducks actually race against each other along the road-sides in search of it; and on wet days they each devour hundreds. All river fish feed to a great extent upon it; and wherever the river beds are of a clayey substance, worms are more plentiful than in *terra firma*. The river worms are darker in color and flatter, as a whole, than the earthworms, but so little do they differ in appearance that a novice could not tell the land from the water-worms. The worms in the water live under the embedded stones, and trout are generally on the watch to gobble them whenever they leave their abode—they even move and turn over the stones in search of worms and the larvæ of water-flies. When a flood comes the stones are generally displaced in great numbers, and at such a time (in a river such as the Tweed for instance,) the worms must be dislodged and carried along the river bottom in tens of thousands; and it is from this cause that trout are generally found so gorged with worms and larvæ when taken after a flood. It is for such food, too, that ducks are constantly gumping among river shallows; for, if watched, it will be seen that they insert their bills below, or move, mostly all the likely stones they pass. We have frequently turned up worms at a depth of about a foot in the rivers.

But though the worm yields a considerable amount of food to the birds and fishes that grace the dinner table, it is much more beneficial to man as a fertilizer of the land. Subsisting on the earth through which it burrows, with an occasional meal from a decaying tuber or leaf, its peculations from the husbandman are of the smallest nature; whereas it lightens "the earth's surface" by its burrowing, and thereby aids the spreading of the roots of all cereals and bulbs; and the burrows also carry down water after heavy rains, that, but for them, would gather in surface pools, and thereby injure the crops; they also admit the air to the soil to a depth which by natural means it could not reach. The earth ejected by them also tends to the improving of the soil; and instances are known whereby these droppings or "worm-casts" caused in a few years, a considerable increase in the depth as well as the quality of the soil. Mr. Darwin, the naturalist, gives an account of a case of this kind which he tested, and from actual experiments he clearly proved, that in an old pasture, a layer of cinders and lime had been covered within a few years, to the depth of an inch, by the castings of worms.—*Scottish Farmer*.

QUESTIONS FOR Written Examinations.

Communications for this Department should be addressed to A. J. MANCHESTER, Providence.

For the Schoolmaster.

Arithmetic.

u. = units.

t. = tens.

h. = hundreds.

th. = thousands.

tth. = ten-thousands.

hth. = hundred-thousands.

m. = millions.

tm. = ten-millions.

hm. = hundred-millions.

b. = billions.

&c.

ts. = tenths.

hs. = hundredths.

ths. = thousandths.

tths. = ten-thousandths.

hths. = hundred-thousandths.

ms. = millionths.

tms. = ten-millionths.

hms. = hundred-millionths.

bs. = billionths.

tbs. = ten-billionths.

&c.

2tth. 3m. 4u. 7th. = 3027004.

5hs. 4ms. 8hths. 1ts. = .150084.

2u. 1hs. 4m. 7t. 8ms. 4h. 7tths. = 4000472.010708.

Designate the value of the following numbers by using the point (.) :

4t. 6hth. 7m. 9th. 3h. 4tm. = —

1th. 5u. 8hth. 4h. 7tm. 2tth. = —

8m 4t. 7tm. 3tth. 5h. 9th. = —

4h. 3b. 7hth. 9u. 5tm. 2th = —

9t. 7tth. 4tm. 8hm. 6u. 1hth. = —

4ms. 8hs. 7hths. 5hms. = —

5tths. 8tms. 4ts. 6ths. = —

7hs. 4ms. 5hths. 2tg. = —

5ts. 4ths. 7ms. 9hs. = —

4hms. 7hths. 4ths. 8ts. = —

4ts. 5m. 8hths. 7th. 4u. 9hs. 7tths. 5tth. 4t. 4h. = —

9u. 7hs. 4tm. 9ms. 5t. 4tths. 7ts. 8hth. 1m. 6th. = —

3tms. 4u. 9hth. 7ms. 4ts. 7h. 6hs. 9tths. 6tm. 2hths. = —

4hths. 9ts. 8hs. 2tms. 7tths. 6tth. 1b. 7tm. 7u. 5ms. = —

9999999. Suppose this number to represent *g f e d c b a* melons. How many does the figure over *a* represent? the figure over *b*? over *c*? over *d*? over *e*? over *f*? over *g*? How many times as many does the figure over *b* represent as

the one over *a*? the one over *c* as over *b*? the one over *d* as over *c*? the one over *e* as over *d*? the one over *f* as over *e*? the one over *g* as over *f*? over *c* as over *a*? over *e* as over *b*? over *g* as over *e*? over *f* as over *c*? over *d* as over *a*.

How many times as many are represented over *e* as over each letter to the right-hand of it? What part of as many are represented over *b* as over each letter to the left of it? If the melons represented over *a* will fill a basket, how many baskets of the same size will be required to hold those represented over *b*? those over *c*? over *d*? over *e*? over *f*? over *g*?

If the melons represented over *c* are worth ten dollars, how much are those over *b* worth? those over *d*? over *f*? over *a*? over *e*? over *g*? over *c* and *a*? over *b* and *a*? over *d* and *c*? over *e* and *b*?

How many melons are represented over *a* and *c*? over *f* and *b*? over *g* and *e*? over *g*, *e* and *b*? over *a*, *c*, *e* and *g*?

.777777 The figures of a whole number *a b c d e f* stand to the left of the point, those of a decimal to the right, and those of a mixed number on both sides. The figure over *a* represents 7 of ten equal parts of a unit, or 7ts.; the one over *d* 7 of ten-thousand equal parts of a unit, or 7tths.

What does the figure over *f* represent? over *e*? over *c*? over *b*? How many *ms.* are represented over *f* and *e*? over *f* and *b*? *f* and *c*? *f*, *d* and *a*? *f*, *e* and *b*? *d* and *b*? *e*, *c* and *a*? *c* and *a*?

What places in reference to the point would the following numbers occupy?

7th. ? 4u. ? 8tth. ? 5m. ? 9h. ? 1b. ? 3hth. ? 6ts. ? 7ms. ? 4tm. ? 9tths. ? 3hm ? 2ms. ? 7hths ?

70b. 11m. 1th. 7h. 4b. = 70011001740.

7m. 1hth. 6h. 8u. = — 309m. 2tth. 7. = —

40m. 102th. 10. = — 30m. 30th. 3h. 3u. = —

108b. 9m. 10th. 82b. = — 602b. 101m. 1th. 1u. = —

410m. 230th. 40u. = — 60b. 6m. 6hth. 66. = —

56m. 2hth. 7h. 11u. and 209hths. = — 4090046ms. = —

70b. 9m. 9hth. 16. and 3094tths. = —

9607001tths. = —

7 4 2 9 7 6 4 1. Read the number of units expressed by this number; the number of tens, (7429764t.); the number of hundreds; the number of *th.*; the number of *tth.*; the number of *hth.*; the number of *m.*; the number of *tm.*; the number of tens over *b* and *e*? the number of tens over *c*, *e*, *f* and *h*? the number of hundreds over *d* and *f*? over *e*, *g* and *h*? the number of *tth.* over *e* and *g*? over *f* and *h*? over *f*, *g* and *h*?

Read first the number of *u.*, then the number of *t.*, *h.*, and *th.* expressed by the figures over the letter *a* in the following numbers:

2336784. 2907003. 92030609.
a a a a a a

8630803001.	493700801.	3970080146.
a a a	a aa	a a a
211877600.	9009786401.	21496171456.
a a aa	a aa a	aaa a

Read, by inspection, the number equal to ten times each of the following; then read the number equal in value to one hundred times each the following numbers; then one thousand times; then ten thousand times.

68.	40.	.7
790.	79.36	8943.6
43608.	87.6543	.0908007
598.64	81009.76	.986437
37864.2	1.07042	24.6973
.783642	.007096	700.
943.786	90.860423	6139.864211

Read by inspection the number equal in value to one-tenth each the above numbers; then one-hundredth; then one-thousandth.

Where must the point be placed that each of the following combination of figures shall express *u.*? *t.*? *h.*? *th.*? *ts.*? *hs.*? *ths.*? *tths.* :

(19) (207) (8908) (630504) (72029) (10) (7001)

What places must be filled with ciphers to express less than ten *hs.*? less than ten *ths.*? more than nine and less than a hundred *ths.*? more than ninety-nine and less than a thousand *tths.*? less than a *ms.*? less than a *hths.*?

42*t.* = 2*t.* and 4*h.* 39*tth.* = 9*tth.* and 3*htth.* 40*m.* = 4*tm.*

37. = — and — 49*h.* = — 51*htth.* = — and — 46*m.* = — and —

12*u.* = — and — 97*hm.* = — and — 88*tm.* = — and —

69*th.* = — and — 83*t.* = — and — 36*h.* = — and —

11*ts.* = — and — 29*ths.* = — and — 93*ms.* = — and —

18*tths.* = — and — 76*hs.* = — and — 39*tms.* = — and —

4*t.* = — *u.* = — *ts.* = — *hs.* = — *ths.*

7*h.* = — *t.* = — *u.* = — *ts.* = — *hs.* = — *ths.*

9*th.* = — *t.* = — *h.* = — *ts.* = — *hs.* = — *ths.*

7*tth.* = — *h.* = — *th.* = — *t.* = — *ts.* = — *hs.*

8*m.* = — *t.* = — *tth.* = — *h.* = — *htth.* = — *th.*

39*htth.* = — *th.* = — *h.* = — *th.* = — *t.* = — *u.*

4*u.* = — *ts.* = — *hs.* = — *tths.* = — *ths.* = — *ms.*

706*tth.* = — *u.* = — *h.* = — *t.* = — *th.* = — *ts.*

Add mentally :

3*u.* + 4*t.* + 2*u.* + 5*h.* + 3*t.* + 4*h.* = —

5*t.* + 3*th.* + 6*u.* + 6*th.* + 2*t.* + 1*u.* = —

6*h.* + 3*u.* + 2*h.* + 4*u.* + 2*t.* + 1*h.* = —

3*t.* + 2*th.* + 7*u.* + 8*h.* + 5*th.* + 4*t.* = —

2*h.* + 5*htth.* + 3*u.* + 4*h.* + 7*t.* + 3*tth.* = —

7*tth.* + 5*u.* + 8*th.* + 6*t.* + 3*u.* + 2*tth.* = —

3*t.* + 9*htth.* + 7*tth.* + 9*u.* + 4*t.* + 1*tth.* = —

9*th.* + 4*h.* + 3*u.* + 6*t.* + 7*m.* + 5*htth.* = —

Add these numbers :

<i>h.</i>	<i>m.</i>	<i>u.</i>	<i>tth.</i>	<i>tm.</i>
4	6	7	8	3
6	7	8	9	7
4	8	6	9	2
8	3	7	4	6

PROOF.

36787497.

77090636.

28993406.

6340807.

2*t.* 2 4 8 2*th.* 3*htth.* 2*hm.* = 204302228.

For convenience, I commence the addition with the lowest denomination, which is units.

.7 + 6. + 8. + 7. = 28*u.* = 8*u.* and 2*t.*

I express the 8*u.* under the column of *u.*, and as there are no tens with which to add the 2*t.*, I express them in the result.

8*h.* + 4*h.* + 6*h.* + 4*h.* = 22*h.* = 2*h.* and 2*th.*, which I express in the result.

4*tth.* + 9*tth.* + 9*tth.* + 8*tth.* = 30*tth.* = 3*htth.*, which I express as a part of the result.

3*m.* + 8*m.* + 7*m.* + 6*m.* = 24*m.* = 4*m.* and 2*tm.*

I write the 4*m.* under millions' column, and add the 2*tm.* with the *tm.*

2*tm.* + 6*tm.* + 2*tm.* + 7*tm.* + 3*tm.* = 20*tm.* = 2*hm.*

ANS. 2*t.* 2*h.* 4*m.* 8*u.* 2*th.* 3*htth.* 2*hm.*

Subtract

8*t.* 2*m.* 4*h.* 5*htth.* 5*tm.* 3*u.* from 2*t.* 9*m.* 3*htth.* 4*h.* 7*tm.*

t. *m.* *h.* *htth.* *tm.* *u.*

2 9 4 3 7 =

8 2 4 5 5 3 =

PROOF.

79307420.

52500483.

9*th.* 3 6 9 7 2 7 9*tth.* = 26799937.

As there are no *u.* expressed from which to take the 3*u.*, I take 1*t.* from the 2*t.* and call it 10*u.* 3*u.* from 10*u.* = 7*u.*, which I express under the *u.* As I cannot take 8*t.* from 1*t.*, I take 1*h.* from the 4*h.*, and reduce it to *t.* = 10*t.* 10*t.* + 1*t.* = 11*t.* 11*t.* - 8*t.* = 3*t.*, which I express under the *t.* 4*h.* from 3*h.* I cannot subtract, therefore I take 1 from the next higher denomination expressed, which is *htth.* 1*htth.* from 3*htth.* leaves 2*htth.* 1*htth.* = 10*tth.* I take 1*tth.* from the 10*tth.* = 9*tth.* 1*tth.* = 10*th.*, from which I take 1*th.*, leaving 9*th.* 1*th.* = 10*h.* 10*h.* + 3*h.* = 13*h.* 13*h.* less 4*h.* = 9*h.*, which I write in the remainder. As I have no *th.* nor *tth.* to subtract from the 9*th.* and the 9*tth.*, I express them in the remainder. 5*htth.* from 2*htth.* I cannot take, therefore I take 1*m.* from the 9*m.* and reduce it to *htth.* = 10*htth.* 10*htth.* + 2*htth.* = 12*htth.* 5*htth.* from 12*htth.* = 7*htth.*, which I write under the *htth.* 2*m.* from 8*m.* = 6*m.* 5*tm.* from 7*tm.* = 2*tm.*

Multiply 7*th.* 8*u.* 4*h.* 3*t.* by 6*h.*

7*th.* 8*u.* 4*h.* 3*t.* =

PROOF.

70438.

6*h.* = 630.

2*m.* 4*tm.* 2*htth.* 8*h.* 2*th.* 6*tth.* = 42262800.

For convenience, I commence the multiplication at the lowest denomination, or with that figure expressing the least value. 6*h.* times 8*u.* = 48*u.* = 8*h.* and 4*th.* I unite the 8*h.* and reserve the 4*th.* to be disposed of hereafter. 6*h.* times 3*t.* = 18*t.* 18*t.*

i. = 2th. and 2th. I write the 2th. the 2th. 6h. times 4h. = 24th. 24th. th. = 6th. and 2th. Write the 6th. the 2th. 6h. times 7th. = 42m. As I with which to add the 2th., I express product. 42m. = 2m. and 4m., which is product.

. 3u. 7tm. 8t. 5hth. into 7 equal parts.
9th. 3u. 7tm. 8t. 5hth.

2 61-7 1 2 7th. 7h.

ience I commence the division at the domination. Separating 7tm. into 7 I have 1tm. in each part which I cannot separate 5hth. into seven equal parts as much as 1hth. in each, I reduce to lower denomination. 5hth. = 50th. I find I can put 7th. in each part and remains undivided. 1th. = 10th. 10th. + Separating, I find I can put 2h. in each 5th. remain undivided. 5th. = 50h. I can put 7h. in each part and 1h. remained. 1h. = 10t. 10t. + 8t. = 18t. I can put 2t. in each part and 4t. remained. 4t. = 40u. 40u. + 3u. = 43u. I can put 6 1-7 in each part.

Teachers who are troubled with work very performed, give a few examples, and the pupil will be obliged to

Teachers' Department.

happy to give our readers, in this numerical effusion of a friend to THE SCHOOLMASTER as a friend to his country. This is, so long a halting place for many a scholar, a clog upon many a gliding dactyl—been unpuzzled! The knot has been more clipped wings, no more weary the soldier has conquered; victory is his banner. Hear him:—

THE RHYMERS' KNOT UNTIED.

A mingling clique among the learned
Their rhyming volumes turned,
And, perhaps ten thousand times,
With and *silver* have no rhymes.

He heard the statement made
Statured on a verbal raid;
The sounding ranks he charged,
And his captives thus emerged:—

Ask mine the patient *delver*
Worth at last the shining *silver*;
Who seeks a rhyme for *month*
In the poet's *amaranth*.

F. D.

Kingstown.—At a meeting of the School of South Kingstown, Nov. 15th, John was appointed Superintendent of the school. Tefft resides near Kingstown.

MEETING OF THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.—Saturday Nov. 22.—The Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, in accordance with previous announcement, met at the Union Meeting House, in Westerly, yesterday morning, at 10 o'clock, A. M. The meeting was called to order by J. J. Ladd, Esq., of Providence. The exercises were opened with prayer by Rev. Mr. Whitman, followed by an introductory address by the President. He spoke of the responsibilities of teachers and the advantages gained by coming together on occasions like this. He hoped there would be no formal speeches, but would have all take part in the discussions, the ladies especially.

The question, "How far is the teacher responsible for the constant and punctual attendance of pupils," was then brought up for discussion. Remarks were made by Messrs. Kendall, Foster, Griswold, Woodbridge, Tefft, Greene and Whitman. The general opinion expressed was that parents are more responsible than teachers for the absence and tardiness of pupils, and that written excuses were, on the whole, worse than nothing, as the evils resulting from deception outweighed the advantages gained. At the close of the discussion the meeting adjourned till 2 o'clock, P. M.

Afternoon.—The President being absent at the opening of the afternoon session, the Institute was called to order by M. S. Greene, of Carolina Mills.

The following question was then discussed: "What should be done to make the pupils of Rhode Island fair spellers?" The question was discussed by Messrs. Kendall, Griswold and G. N. Greene. The speakers thought there was not enough importance attached to this branch of education. It was a bad practice to mispronounce words for the purpose of aiding the scholar in spelling. Definitions should be required as well as correct spelling.

Next in order came the lecture of Mr. Kendall. The lecture was delivered in the "familiar" style for which Mr. Kendall has such a peculiar tact. The qualifications of the teacher, said he, should be good judgment, good body, good mind, spiritual nature, love, faith, aptness to teach and explain. Learning and intellect are no guarantees of success. In length of lessons, advancing, reviewing, government of the school, &c., the teacher should use his own, not another's judgment. He should never act under the influence of passion. Revenge not unfrequently grows up when one has been in error. A desire for the good of the pupils should ever impress the heart of the teacher. A loving heart is one of God's best gifts; and may supply the place of many mental deficiencies, and make the most of what talent is given. A teacher without love for his pupils was an object he hoped was not often seen in Rhode Island.

After the close of the lecture, Mr. G. N. Greene raised the question, "How can our community best be educated so as rightly to appreciate good teachers and good schools and give them its hearty cooperation." This question was briefly discussed by Messrs. Tefft, Foster and M. S. Greene, after which the Institute adjourned to meet at 7 o'clock.

Evening.—The Institute was called to order in the evening by the President, who then introduced Rev. Heman Lincoln to the audience.

Mr. Lincoln's lecture, on "Education out of School," was a decidedly interesting one, the illustrations being drawn from a large variety of sources, and most happily chosen. Teachers could not create intellect, but they could cultivate and improve the minds placed under their charge, and if they could bring outside influences into harmony with their own efforts in the school-room and make them of service there they would reap rich benefits. The speaker enumerated some of the more important influences that combine to make up an individual's education outside of the school-room, among which were those derived from the home circle, from the effects of poverty or riches, from free intercourse with the works of Nature, from books, and from the general intercourse with mankind.

Mr. Kendall then suggested that the teachers should tell in what way they proposed to ventilate their school houses, as he was aware that many houses were deficient in this respect. No one, however, gave any new ideas on ventilation save the President, who spoke of an apparatus he had in his room, by which the temperature of the atmosphere was greatly improved. If Mr. Ladd's "evaporator" could be brought before the public it would doubtless go into use, not only in school-rooms, but in many other places. He then gave an amusing description of the ventilation in the room where he first taught, and which was probably not the only one of the kind in existence.

By a request of the President, those present actually engaged in teaching arose, and the number present was found to be eighteen. The Institute then adjourned until Saturday morning at 9 o'clock. Owing to the inclemency of the weather the attendance has not, thus far, been as large as on former occasions, but the audience last evening was larger than was hoped for under the circumstances.

SATURDAY MORNING, Nov. 22.

At the appointed hour, (9 o'clock), most of the teachers attending the Institute were present at the Union Meeting House, when by common consent an hour was spent in friendly intercourse between the teachers present.

At 10 o'clock, the Institute was called to order by the President. The question, whether they should have one session or two, was then briefly discussed, and it was decided, in view of the fact that the 3 P. M. train was the only train going east that would stop at way-stations, that there should be but one session, to adjourn at 1 P. M.

The question, "What is the best method of presenting Decimals and Percentage," was then taken up. The President called on Mr. DeMunn, of Providence, who presented the subject to the Institute by some excellent and instructive remarks, and illustrations on the black-board. Mr. DeMunn thought that numbers should always be presented in a concrete form, and that the best mathematicians, though their expressions may indicate abstract numbers, their minds were occupied

with concrete numbers. His illustrations of the principles of percentage were very clear and instructive. He thought the term *per cent.* was a bad one, as the child would always associate with it the idea of the currency called a "cent." Mr. Ladd thought the system of using postage stamps would help improve the difficulty. An hour was very pleasantly spent in discussing the question, and was participated in by Messrs. Kendall, Foster, Ladd, Greene and others.

Mr. Kendall then raised the question, "How can we best elevate the standard of schools in our several districts, and how shall pupils be incited to greater diligence in study." Mr. Kendall thought that uniformity in text-books would help do this, and related incidents to prove its advantages. All departments of study should have equal importance—there should be no hobby pursued to the detriment of other studies. The teacher should endeavor to interest the pupils, and induce them to form habits of observation.

Mr. Ladd thought that a free intercourse between teacher and pupil should exist out of school. The teacher should learn to be familiar without lowering his dignity. In short, he should carry his dignity with him down to a level with the pupil.

Mr. DeMunn also thought that the teacher should be familiar with the pupil, and that the female teacher had the power of exerting a thousand little influences for good which it was beyond the power of the male teacher to exercise.

Mr. Kenyon, a teacher of the "old school" stamp, related some of his experience in teaching, in a style peculiarly his own. His remarks were equally amusing and instructive, and though not clothed in the polished language of the "latter day" teachers, they were received by all present as lessons of wisdom.

Mr. Kendall then inquired what should be done with a dull scholar, which question was briefly discussed.

As the hour of adjournment was drawing nigh, Mr. Harrison, of New York, agent for Payson & Dunton, gave some illustrations on the blackboard on the principles of penmanship, which were well received.

Mr. Foster, of the Westerly Heights School, and Mr. Palmer, of Stonington, who had previously been appointed a committee on resolutions, presented the following, which were unanimously adopted by the Institute:

Resolved, That a vote of thanks be given to Rev. Heman Lincoln and Joehua Kendall, Esq., Principals of the Rhode Island Normal School, for their able and instructive lectures before the Institute.

Resolved, That the Institute express its gratitude to the Providence and Stonington Railroad Company for the new and highly appreciated favor of half-fare to its members.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Institute are due to the citizens of Westerly for the cordial and abundant hospitality shown to them during the present session.

Resolved, That a vote of thanks be given to the Corporation for the use of the Union Meeting-house, in which we have held our sessions,

Resolved. That our gratitude is due to the President and other officers of the Institute, for their presence and administration during the present session.

Resolved. That no teacher, school officer or parent can effectually perform his educational duty, without the aid of a good School Journal.

The Institute then adjourned to meet on Friday and Saturday, two weeks hence, at Wickford.—*Evening Press.*

Meteorological.—Providence, R. I.

SUMMARY FOR NOVEMBER, 1862.

The following table gives the result of three daily observations of the Barometer and open air Thermometer, direction of the wind, and the quantity of rain and melted snow in inches, for the month of November, 1862. The observations are made from Smithsonian instruments manufactured by James Green. The readings of the Barometer, therefore, need no correction for capillarity, and are also reduced to mean sea-level, and to the temperature of 32° Fah.

BAROMETER.

	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	Month.
Mean,	30.056	30.019	30.050	30.342
Maxima,	30.97	30.91	30.84	30.97 on the 16th.
Minima,	29.56	29.57	29.62	29.56 on the 3d.
Range,	1.41	1.34	1.22	1.41

The highest mean of the Barometer for any one day was 30.92, on the 16th; lowest 29.66, on the 22d. The Barometer, during the early part of the month, fluctuated considerably; but toward the middle, was somewhat regular in its movements. On the 15th, one of those extraordinary atmospheric waves, experienced not more than half a dozen times perhaps in half a century, came over this region. Its crest was over us at 10 A. M. on the 16th, raising the Barometer to the great altitude of 30.971. This was the highest point reached since the 12th of February, 1857 when it was a few hundredths higher than on this occasion, and was, it is believed, the highest point ever observed. During the day, on the 15th, the Barometer rose somewhat rapidly, but throughout the succeeding night, the movement was very slow and hourly observations showed that it was quite stationary at alternate hours. Just before sunrise on the 16th, the movement increased somewhat, but after 8 o'clock, till it reached its maximum height, it was scarcely perceptible. It remained at the highest point less than half an hour, and at noon had fallen several hundredths of an inch. The extreme range for the month (1.41) was large, and 1.30 of it took place within four days following the 16th. The week following this great elevation was for the most part cloudy and stormy; 3.35 inches, or more than half the monthly yield of rain, being deposited during the period.

OPEN AIR THERMOMETER.

	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	Month.
Mean,	40.2	48.2	41.7	43.4
Maxima,	61	74	62	74 on the 1st.
Minima,	25	33	28	25 on the 16th.
Range,	36	41	34	49

The highest mean of the Thermometer for any one day was 61.3, on the 20th; lowest, 31.7, on the 16th.

The mean for the month (43.4) is fully two degrees above the average. The third quarter of the month was especially warm. Maximum and minimum registering Thermometers indicated the extreme range of temperature to have been 50 degrees, having risen to 74 on the 1st, and fallen to 24 on the 16th. The warmest night was that of the 20th, when the Thermometer did not fall below 57. On the average, the maximum temperature of each day was 50.0, and the minimum 37.4, giving a mean of 43.7, which is only 3-10ths of a degree different from the mean of the three regular observations. There were five days on which the temperature was lower at 2 P. M. than at sunrise. On one of these—the 6th—it was nine degrees. On the 21st the temperature fluctuated considerably. Soon after sunrise it rose a degree, and shortly afterwards fell again; subsequently it rose five degrees, and afterwards fell four.

DIRECTION OF WIND.

	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	Month.	NO. DAYS.
N. to E.,	9	8	9	26	9
E. to S.,	2	4	1	7	2
S. to W.,	3	9	11	23	8
W. to N.,	16	9	9	34	11

The prevailing winds from the different quarters were about their usual proportions for November, being the greatest number of days between West and North, and the least between East and South.

The proportion of the heavens obscured by clouds, as estimated without instruments, on a scale of from 1 to 10, was as follows: 7 A. M., 6.5; 2 P. M., 6.4; 9 P. M., 6.4; mean for the month, 6.4, or a considerable more than one-half.

Rain or snow fell on 14 days, giving a depth of water of 6.04 inches, which is more than 2 inches above the average. This gives a total depth from January 1st to December 1st, of 47.80 inches, which is about 7 1-2 inches more than the annual average. The prospects are, therefore, that there may be an excess of 10 inches or more at the end of the year. On the 7th, there was a severe storm of hail and snow, commencing at 7 A. M. and continuing till 6 P. M. The depth on the ground did not exceed 2 inches, although but for the temperature being above the freezing point, especially in the early part of the day, it would doubtless have measured three inches or more. This was an early day in the season for so severe a storm, and led to apprehensions on the part of some of an early commencement of a severe winter season. Such a storm, however, is no certain indication of what kind of weather may be expected. On the contrary the probabilities are that the storms generally, during the present winter, will not be followed by the sudden fall in the temperature and the heavy Northwest winds, which are the accompaniments of a severe winter. November 1827 was marked by a severe snow storm in the early part of the month, and was also colder than any since; but the winter which followed was milder than any which have succeeded. The snow storm of the 7th is worthy of attention in other respects than that of being early. Generally there are two sources to which our storms may be traced. Those termed Southeasters commence in the West or Northwest, nearly or quite a day sooner than at New York. The Northeasters have their source in the Southwest,

and move with considerable regularity along the coast, toward the Northeast, reaching Halifax about a day later than they do in New York. The storm of the 7th does not seem to have partaken of the characteristics of either of these classes, but seems to have approached broadside from the seaward, striking the whole coast almost at the same time; there being only an hour's difference between New York and Boston, while it did not reach Cleveland untill the following day.

A comparison of November of this year with the same month last shows the mean of the Barometer this year to have been .180 higher, and the range .055 greater. The mean temperature was 5.6 degrees higher and the range 6 degrees greater than last year. The depth of rain this year was 2.64 inches more than that of last, which was 3.40 inches.

The elevation of the Barometer on the 16th seems to have been greater in New England than in other parts of the country from which we have heard. In Boston its greatest height at mean sea-level was 31.055, at a temperature of 50 degrees. This would give, reduced to the freezing point, 30.998, or an elevation of .027 of an inch higher than was observed here. With so small a difference, it is difficult to judge at which place it stood highest, without knowing the comparative readings of the two instruments when together, there being almost always some slight correction to be made from such differences. In New Jersey, it appears from the *Newark Advertiser*, the greatest elevation was 30.788, indicating that the mercury did not stand as high by some twelve-hundredths of an inch as it did in this city; as, according to that paper, their standard read by Green's, to have given the same elevation, would have stood 30.918.

In the comparison of Barometrical readings in different places it is often difficult to come at satisfactory results, both on account of the difference in the readings of the instruments and the omission on the part of observers respecting the corrections to be made for temperature and altitude above the sea-level.

H. C. SHELDON.

December 3d, 1862.

SEPARATING THE SEXES IN SCHOOL.—On this point Mr. Stowe, a celebrated Glasgow teacher, uses the following language:

"The youth of both sexes of our Scottish peasantry have been educated together; and as a whole, the Scotch are the most moral people on the earth. Education in England is given separately, and we have never heard from practical men that any benefit has arisen from the arrangement. Some influential individuals mourn over the prejudice on this point. In such, a larger number of girls turned out badly who had been educated in one until they attained the age of majority, than those who were otherwise brought up. The separation of the sexes has been found to be injurious. It is stated on the best authority, that of those girls educated in schools of convents, apart from boys, the greater majority go wrong within a month after being let loose in society and meeting

the other sex. They cannot, it is said, resist the slightest compliment or flattery. The separation is intended to keep them strictly moral; but this unnatural seclusion actually generates the very principle desired to be avoided. We may repeat that it is impossible to raise the girls as high, intellectually, without boys as with them—and it is impossible to raise boys morally as high without girls. The girls morally elevate the boys, and the boys intellectually elevate the girls. But more than this—girls are morally elevated by the presence of boys, and boys are also intellectually elevated by the presence of girls. Girls brought up with boys are more positively moral, and boys brought up in schools with the girls are more positively intellectual, by the softening influence of the female character. In the Normal Seminary, at Glasgow, the most beneficial effects have resulted from the more natural course. Boys and girls, from the age of two or three years to that of fourteen or fifteen, have been confined in the same class-room, galleries and play-grounds without impropriety, and they are never separated except at needle-work."

The following interesting remarks respecting the eclipse of the Moon are from the *Boston Traveller*:

TOTAL ECLIPSE OF THE MOON.—Early in the morning of Saturday, Dec. 6th, the Moon throughout the United States will be "totally" eclipsed. The Moon will not, however, wholly disappear, but will continue faintly visible, rayless, and in color and appearance resembling a tarnished copper disc. Indeed, it has been estimated that only about nine-tenths of the light of the Moon is intercepted when our satellite is wholly immersed in the shadow of the Earth.

At those places in the United States, &c., whose longitude exceeds 86 1/2 degrees West, this eclipse will begin a little before midnight, or late in the evening, of Friday, 5th. Thus at Chicago and St. Louis, whose longitudes are 87 1/2 and 90 1/4 degrees, it will begin at 11h. 55m. P. M. of 5th at the former city, and at 11h. 44m. P. M. at St. Louis. As the eclipse in this country happens at midnight or soon after, the Moon will be high here, and in Cuba near the zenith.

This will be the last "total" eclipse of the moon visible in this country within several years. One will occur on the 1st of June next, the whole of which can be seen in Europe and part in the island of Newfoundland, but even at Eastport, the most eastern point in the United States, the moon will not rise that day until after having begun to emerge from the shadow of the earth."

PAPER MADE FROM CORN LEAVES.—The London *Mechanics' Magazine* states that excellent paper is now made in Europe from the leaves of Indian corn. There is one paper-mill in operation in Switzerland, and another in Austria, in which paper is made from such leaves exclusively. The husks which envelop the ears of corn make the best quality. As we are dependent upon Europe, in a great measure, for our supply of rags to make our paper, if we can obtain as good qualities from Indian corn leaves, we may yet become the manufacturers of paper for the whole world, as the greatest supply of cheap raw material is found in America. This is a subject worthy of deep attention, as we import rags to the value of about one million dollars annually, and paper manufacturers to the value of about one million dollars.—*Exchange.*

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Webster's High School Dictionary,
Webster's Academic Dictionary,
Webster's Counting House Dictionary,
Webster's Pocket Dictionary,
Lossing's Pictorial History of the United States,
Lossing's Primary History of the United States,

Pinney and Arnould's French Grammar,
F. S. Williams's English into French,
Pinney's Easy Lessons in French,
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Pinney and Badoi's Practical French Teacher,
Pinney's Progressive French Reader,
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THE CLEVELAND (O.) TESTIMONIAL:

To the Board of Education of Cleveland :

GENTLEMEN : — We the undersigned, teachers in the public schools of Cleveland, having examined ALLEN'S PRIMARY GEOGRAPHY on the object-method of instruction, most respectfully ask that you may introduce that work into our schools.

DR. THOMAS STERLING, Principal High School.
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W. G. WATERSON, Principal Mayflower Grammar School.
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W. B. DARR, Principal Kentucky Street Grammar School.
A. A. BEACON, Principal Hudson Street Grammar School.
A. QUINTSELL, Principal Eagle Street Grammar School.

One of the best evidences of the approval of the work here, is found in the fact that the Board of Education of this city, at the urgent instance of the teachers, *unanimously adopted it* for use in all the Primary and Secondary Public Schools of this city.

L. M. OVIATT, *Superintendent of Instruction, Cleveland, Ohio.*

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“EVEN EXCHANGE,”

OR

PROGRESSIVE TRUTH

VINDICATED!

A Reply to Messrs. Brewer & Tileston's late Pamphlet and Advertisement.

THE charge of “falsehood” so lavishly stowed upon me on the part of Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, publishers of a rival series of Readers, would not, in its results, be very serious, even if such assertions should go unnoticed. Too much notoriety has already been given to Hillard's Readers and Worcester's Spellers, by being brought in contact with meritorious works of a similar nature. The Progressive Books, by Town and Albrook, gain nothing by such notoriety, they are too well known to require the flattering assistance emanating from a source, the prominent object of which is to keep fresh before the people the fact that Hillard's Readers and Worcester's Spellers are yet out of print.

The assertion of “falsehood” will be clearly seen, I trust, to rest upon the heads of those who have serenely laid themselves down under the darkened shadow, displayed in an extraordinary effort to vindicate the “Truth,” while every evidence, plainly deducible from their own acknowledgments, goes far to convict them of misrepresentation.

In the “Massachusetts Teacher” of November, present, and in a pamphlet, entitled “Truth Vindicated,” appear articles over the signature of Brewer & Tileston, which neither do justice to myself nor reflect honor upon our authors. “Truth Vindicated” contains ninety-eight pages, twelve of which appear to be a eulogy on Hillard's Readers and Worcester's Spellers. The larger portion of the recommendations embraced therein, however, came from the State of Ohio, where Hillard's and Worcester's Series no sooner find their birth than their moral and practical characteristics developed themselves; and they were strangled in the attempt to breathe the same atmosphere. As it is my intention to offer proof of my “assertions,” in this reply to Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, I would respectfully refer those interested in the “increased popularity of Hillard's and Worcester's Series”

in Ohio, to Messrs. J. B. Smith & Co., of Cincinnati.

Now, turning my attention to the article in the “Massachusetts Teacher,” and presuming it is the intention of its authors to reprint it in other equally able Educational Journals of the day, I will call attention to the following table of comparative size and cost, given in the “Even Exchange” circular (with such corrections as I hereafter refer to), which circular was issued by me, June 20th, though bearing date June 16th, 1862:—

	No. pages.	Wholesale.	Retail.
Hillard's First Class Reader,	552	.67	\$1.00
“ Second “ “	278	.45	.67
“ Third “ “	182	.34	.50
“ Third Primary Reader,	236	.26	.38
“ Second “ “	120	.17	.25
“ First “ “	72	.12	.18
Worcester's Speller,	180	.17	.25
	1620	\$2.17	\$3.23

Correction.—To the Second Class Reader, 58 pages, and to the Third Class Reader 46 pages of “other matter” should be added; 40 pages of which are the same in each book. But after giving the series credit for these additions and repetitions, it will be seen that the aggregate number of pages is still less than in the Progressive Series.

Hillard's Series, to make it complete, has a Fourth Class Reader (price 42 cents), and a Primary Speller (price 13 cents), in addition to the above-named books, thereby requiring a greater outlay on the part of the pupil using this series, while nothing is gained by the study of such additional matter.

	No. pages.	Wholesale.	Retail.
Progressive Fifth Reader,	504	.67	.88
“ Fourth “ “	384	.50	.75
“ Third “ “	304	.38	.50
“ Second “ “	208	.25	.30
“ First “ “	112	.15	.20
“ Primer	64	.10	.13
“ Speller & Definer,	168	.10	.13
	1744	\$2.15	\$2.89
Total number of words in Worcester's Speller,			\$4.286
“ “ “ “ “ Progressive “			13.334

We have here shown that the *corresponding* books, alone, of the Progressive Series contain more pages than Hillard's and Worcester's Series, while the latter *two* are much more expensive; and, if we add the *extra* cost of the two books above named, we have the unnecessary sum of *eighty-eight cents* to be expended for every set of Hillard's and Worcester's Series. The comparison between Worcester's and the Progressive Speller is significant; the former, containing only 8,286 words, costs *twenty-five cents*, retail, and the latter, containing 13,911 words (all common words in the language), costs *thirteen cents*, retail.

It is shown by the preceding table, that the sum of *two dollars eighty-nine cents*, the retail price of the Primer, First, Second, Third, Fourth, and Fifth Readers and the Speller, is the total expense to which the scholar is subject in the adoption of the Progressive Series.

I quote from the "Teacher:"—"Mr. Ellsworth introduces into his table the Progressive Speaker as an optional book with the Fifth Reader, but excludes its cost from the table of prices."

O consistency! Will Messrs. Brewer & Tileston have the candor to give the Progressive Series due credit for the number of pages the "Speaker" contains, if they intend to include it in the table of prices? Our table neither shows the number of *pages*, nor includes the *price* of the "Speaker." Every one knows, that where the Fifth book is in use, the Speaker cannot be, since both books are intended for the most advanced class in school, their use being optional with the teacher.

Falschhood number one is uttered by Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, when they say, "It is not necessary to use the two extra books embraced in Hillard's and Worcester's Series (viz., Hillard's Fourth Class Reader, costing *forty-two cents*, retail, and Worcester's Elementary or Primary Speller, costing *thirteen cents*, retail), for these books can be omitted, as they generally are," &c. I shall show this last quotation, however, to be *nearer* the truth than any other portion of their infamous sheets, bearing upon every page unblushing falsehoods and veiled deception. Now, these two books must have a meaning; they must have been intended for *something*; and they should fill a space no other books of Hillard's and Worcester's Series can, to be of any practical use. One is the pivot book of a series of Readers, leaving a broken link, if omitted; the other is a Primary Speller, without which (in country schools especially) Worcester's large Speller (retailing at *twenty-five cents*, while it contains only about half the number of words embraced in the Progressive Speller, which retails at *thirteen cents*) cannot be successfully used.

The fact that schools are "not graded," is no reason why the scholars should not have the full benefit of all the matter to be obtained in the adoption of a well-graded series of text-

books. Country schools, because they are "not graded," we are led to understand, may plainly infer, do not receive the full benefit of Hillard's and Worcester's Series, in their adoption. This is not the case with the Progressive Series; and hence the great success of these well-graded and practical books—books issued about the same time as Hillard's Series, yet numbering in their adoption *twenty* towns to Hillard's one. As I propose to give proof, my introductory Ledger, with accounts settled and unsettled, and my reports, received from various towns within the last six months, are at the service of any one doubting my statement.

In Messrs. Brewer & Tileston's computation of "Other Matter," these gentlemen even out-Herod Herod. In their eager efforts to swell the size of their books, they have resorted to counting the *blank or fly-leaf* of one of their Readers, and of twice taking into their account of "other matter," *forty* pages of Hillard's Third Class Reader, for the same *forty* pages, word for word, are repeated in Hillard's Second Class Reader, a higher book of the series.

And this is not all. These introductory exercises, most of which are *twice* repeated in the series, having neither form, comeliness, nor practicality, may, perhaps, be found quite as useful in the hands of pupils as so many pages of Latin, Greek, or Choctaw to merely English scholars. But this wily deception, so plainly manifest on the part of Messrs. Brewer and Tileston, I will not include in my table of *falsehoods*, simply allowing it to pass as a specimen of one of their *white lies*. How commendable and ennobling the exertion, displaying *such* tenderness of conscience, and *such* degree of honesty!

The "other matter," referred to in Hillard's Series, will be found, on examination, to be composed of material very properly classed under that head; and it most conclusively shows the author's *impractical* ideas of what is one of the indispensable requisites in a series of Readers for school use.

In the preface of the "Third Class Reader," it is taken for granted that some *teachers* will not understand this "other matter;" and yet may such apprehensions arise, for it evidently is too obscure and unintelligible even on the subject of Orthoepey, the *only* subject presented in any number of the series, to be of benefit to a teacher who knows but little of the subject; and it is equally useless to one who thoroughly understands it, because it is for the most part altogether impractical. What, then, shall be said of its adaptation to Third or Fourth Class readers, children of ten or twelve years of age, for whom it is designed?

Now, while the subject of Orthoepey should have been more briefly and familiarly treated, exercises in the other departments of education ought not to have been omitted.

justice of this criticism will be obvious from the following extracts :

Page X. "The *indefinite* and *extendible* elements are sometimes called CONTINUANTS; and the *abrupt*, EXPLODENTS."

Page XI. "The *abrupt subtonics*, when fully articulated separately, have, at the precise moment after the OCCLUSION is suddenly broken, a short and obscure vocal sound, which is called a *vocule*."

Page XV. "The *vocule* of an *atonic* should not be made vocal; nor that of a *subtonic* overdone."

In the Progressive Series, Messrs. Brewer & Tileston ignore *eighty* pages in the Third Reader, *one hundred thirty-six* in the Fourth, and *two hundred fifty-four* in the Fifth, embracing in all every department of elocution, and THREE HUNDRED PAGES of peculiarly appropriate and illustrative reading-matter, all of which, according to their judgment, comes under the head of "other matter,"—thus modestly offsetting in their table the most valuable portions of the three higher books of the Progressive Series, by frankly acknowledging, but at the same time attempting to hide the *deficiency* in Hillard's Series, in which they claim only *ten* pages of "other matter" in the First Class Reader, *fifty-eight* in the Second, and *forty-six* in the Third. The want of "other matter," embracing all the departments of elocution, practically arranged and illustrated, the ground-work of every practical and *successful* series of Readers, is one of the *many weak* points in Hillard's Series.

To falsehood number two, the preceding is believed to be a full and satisfactory refutation.

As one evidence of a "sorry confession, relative to changes made in Hillard's Readers," on the part of Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, I offer the fact that the author has expunged from the late editions of one Reader a certain *immoral* and otherwise objectionable piece. I refer to his selection of "Midshipman's Franks," in which the dog Shakings is said to take improper liberties with an officer's newly polished boots; and because this "ugly, dirty beast of a dog" is expelled from the ship, the old sow and all the pigs on board are put in mourning, by tying bits of black bunting to their legs. "The row which ensued in the pig-sty was prodigious," &c. &c. "How debased the mind that can invest so pure and beautiful a passage with an impure meaning!" See Truth Vindicated, page 4.

The exclusion, also, of a certain sectarian piece, entitled "The Three Friends," may or may not offend a few members of our Boston School Committee; while no one would be surprised if the omission of the Roman Catholic piece of poetry should create opposition in another direction.

The only happy medium, gentlemen, is to let such subjects entirely alone, giving high-toned moral and practical lessons, and carefully excluding from your books all pieces from which inferences of a low, vulgar, and "sensual character" are sure to be drawn. I care

not where such objectionable pieces may be found, whether in the writings of American or English poets. Much as I admire the writings of Shakespeare and other authors referred to in your scurrilous "Truth Vindicated," allow me to say, that the "figures" I referred to in my "Even Exchange" the authors have drawn from *real life*. It matters not how little or how much the writers may have embellished the background, they have accomplished one object in a masterly style; and there is no "dishonesty, and fitful, fraudulent trickery," in perceiving the *idea* such figures will *unavoidably* suggest.

In the construction of sentences, Hillard's Readers are still open to criticism (as many of the sentences can not be properly reconstructed without making new plates), notwithstanding the alterations made in the late revision of the series, in which over one hundred *grammatical, sentential* and other errors were corrected, in accordance with the suggestions made in the "Critic Criticised," and published by Bazin & Ellsworth more than three years ago, in reply to a criticism on one of their publications.

Falsehood number three.

"In the matter of price," says the "Teacher," "it is an established custom of publishers to give *nominal retail prices* fifty per cent. in advance of the wholesale prices. This may be called the *catalogue retail price*; but it is well known that the *actual* retail price of school books is always much less than the catalogue price. Yet Mr. Ellsworth has the disingenuousness to give the *catalogue* price of Hillard's Readers, and the *actual* retail price of the Progressive Series."

The writer of the above could not have uttered a more gross and willful falsehood had he just emerged from the depths where "all liars find their part." I copied from the publishers' catalogue the *wholesale and retail prices of each series*. Your very "Truth Vindicated," Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, convicts you of falsehood. See pages 17, 18, and 19. — "A First Class Reader by George S. Hillard, 12mo., 528 pages (a few pages have since been added.) Price \$1.00, &c. &c.!" and yet you claim that your retail price, after all, is only 88 cents.

You have attempted to draw off attention to this fact, by skulking into a corner, with no curtain of honesty to hide your picayune acts, and there showing how many pages of reading and "other matter" Hillard's Series furnish for "one cent." No such miserable subterfuge will shield a design "conceived in sin and born in iniquity." My "catalogue," "nominal," and "actual retail price" is the price I publish to the world, and the *only* price I charge for my books at retail. I have never deceived the pupil or the parent by giving "nominal" prices to enrich the merchant. I do not charge the sum of *one dollar* on my catalogue to be shown the scholar, for the sake of making friends with the "mammon of unrighteousness." Messrs. Brewer & Tileston may make such discounts to the "trade" as they choose; this will not protect the pupil

Lippincott's Geographical Series,

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BOOK I.

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To the Board of Education of Cleveland:

GENTLEMEN:— We the undersigned, teachers in the public schools of Cleveland, having examined ALLEN'S PRIMARY GEOGRAPHY on the object-method of instruction, most respectfully ask that you may introduce that work into our schools.

DR. THOMAS STERLING, Principal High School.
W. W. CUSHING, Principal West St. Clair Grammar School.
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Progressive Fifth Reader,	504	.87	.98
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Speller & Definer,	168	.10	.13
	1744	\$2.15	\$2.50
Total number of words in Worcester's Speller,			4,268
" " " " Progressive "			13,911

Evening.—The Institute was called to order in the evening by the President, who then introduced Rev. Heman Lincoln to the audience.

Mr. Lincoln's lecture, on "Education out of School," was a decidedly interesting one, the illustrations being drawn from a large variety of sources, and most happily chosen. Teachers could not create intellect, but they could cultivate and improve the minds placed under their charge, and if they could bring outside influences into harmony with their own efforts in the school-room and make them of service there they would reap rich benefits. The speaker enumerated some of the more important influences that combine to make up an individual's education outside of the school-room, among which were those derived from the home circle, from the effects of poverty or riches, from free intercourse with the works of Nature, from books, and from the general intercourse with mankind.

Mr. Kendall then suggested that the teachers should tell in what way they proposed to ventilate their school houses, as he was aware that many houses were deficient in this respect. No one, however, gave any new ideas on ventilation save the President, who spoke of an apparatus he had in his room, by which the temperature of the atmosphere was greatly improved. If Mr. Ladd's "evaporator" could be brought before the public it would doubtless go into use, not only in school-rooms, but in many other places. He then gave an amusing description of the ventilation in the room where he first taught, and which was probably not the only one of the kind in existence.

By a request of the President, those present actually engaged in teaching arose, and the number present was found to be eighteen. The Institute then adjourned until Saturday morning at 9 o'clock. Owing to the inclemency of the weather the attendance has not, thus far, been as large as on former occasions, but the audience last evening was larger than was hoped for under the circumstances.

SATURDAY MORNING, NOV. 22.

At the appointed hour, (9 o'clock), most of the teachers attending the Institute were present at the Union Meeting House, when by common consent an hour was spent in friendly intercourse between the teachers present.

At 10 o'clock, the Institute was called to order by the President. The question, whether they should have one session or two, was then briefly discussed, and it was decided, in view of the fact that the 3 P. M. train was the only train going east that would stop at way-stations, that there should be but one session, to adjourn at 1 P. M.

The question, "What is the best method of presenting Decimals and Percentage," was then taken up. The President called on Mr. DeMunn, of Providence, who presented the subject to the Institute by some excellent and instructive remarks, and illustrations on the black-board. Mr. DeMunn thought that numbers should always be presented in a concrete form, and that the best mathematicians, though their expressions may indicate abstract numbers, their minds were occupied

with concrete numbers. His illustrations of the principles of percentage were very clear and instructive. He thought the term *per cent.* was a bad one, as the child would always associate with it the idea of the currency called a "cent." Mr. Ladd thought the system of using postage stamps would help improve the difficulty. An hour was very pleasantly spent in discussing the question, and was participated in by Messrs. Kendall, Foster, Ladd, Greene and others.

Mr. Kendall then raised the question, "How can we best elevate the standard of schools in our several districts, and how shall pupils be incited to greater diligence in study." Mr. Kendall thought that uniformity in text-books would help do this, and related incidents to prove its advantages. All departments of study should have equal importance—there should be no hobby pursued to the detriment of other studies. The teacher should endeavor to interest the pupils, and induce them to form habits of observation.

Mr. Ladd thought that a free intercourse between teacher and pupil should exist out of school. The teacher should learn to be familiar without lowering his dignity. In short, he should carry his dignity with him down to a level with the pupil.

Mr. DeMunn also thought that the teacher should be familiar with the pupil, and that the female teacher had the power of exerting a thousand little influences for good which it was beyond the power of the male teacher to exercise.

Mr. Kenyon, a teacher of the "old school" stamp, related some of his experience in teaching, in a style peculiarly his own. His remarks were equally amusing and instructive, and though not clothed in the polished language of the "latter day" teachers, they were received by all present as lessons of wisdom.

Mr. Kendall then inquired what should be done with a dull scholar, which question was briefly discussed.

As the hour of adjournment was drawing nigh, Mr. Harrison, of New York, agent for Payson & Dunton, gave some illustrations on the blackboard on the principles of penmanship, which were well received.

Mr. Foster, of the Westerly Heights School, and Mr. Palmer, of Stonington, who had previously been appointed a committee on resolutions, presented the following, which were unanimously adopted by the Institute:

Resolved, That a vote of thanks be given to Rev. Heman Lincoln and Joshua Kendall, Esq., Principal of the Rhode Island Normal School, for their able and instructive lectures before the Institute.

Resolved, That the Institute express its gratitude to the Providence and Stonington Railroad Company for the new and highly appreciated favor of half-fare to its members.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Institute are due to the citizens of Westerly for the cordial and abundant hospitality shown to them during the present session.

Resolved, That a vote of thanks be given to the Corporation for the use of the Union Meeting-house, in which we have held our sessions,

Resolved, That our gratitude is due to the President and other officers of the Institute, for their presence and administration during the present session.

Resolved, That no teacher, school officer or parent can effectually perform his educational duty, without the aid of a good School Journal.

The Institute then adjourned to meet on Friday and Saturday, two weeks hence, at Wickford.—*Evening Press*.

Meteorological.—Providence, R. I.

SUMMARY FOR NOVEMBER, 1862.

The following table gives the result of three daily observations of the Barometer and open air Thermometer, direction of the wind, and the quantity of rain and melted snow in inches, for the month of November, 1862. The observations are made from Smithsonian instruments manufactured by James Green. The readings of the Barometer, therefore, need no correction for capillarity, and are also reduced to mean sea-level, and to the temperature of 32° Fah.

BAROMETER.

	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	Month.
Mean,	30.056	30.019	30.050	30.342
Maxima,	30.97	30.91	30.84	30.97 on the 16th.
Minima,	29.66	29.57	29.62	29.56 on the 3d.
Range,	1.41	1.34	1.22	1.41

The highest mean of the Barometer for any one day was 30.92, on the 16th; lowest 29.66, on the 22d. The Barometer, during the early part of the month, fluctuated considerably; but toward the middle, was somewhat regular in its movements. On the 15th, one of those extraordinary atmospheric waves, experienced not more than half a dozen times perhaps in half a century, came over this region. Its crest was over us at 10 A. M. on the 16th, raising the Barometer to the great altitude of 30.971. This was the highest point reached since the 12th of February, 1857, when it was a few hundredths higher than on this occasion, and was, it is believed, the highest point ever observed. During the day, on the 15th, the Barometer rose somewhat rapidly, but throughout the succeeding night, the movement was very slow, and hourly observations showed that it was quite stationary at alternate hours. Just before sunrise on the 16th, the movement increased somewhat, but after 8 o'clock, till it reached its maximum height, it was scarcely perceptible. It remained at the highest point less than half an hour, and at noon had fallen several hundredths of an inch. The extreme range for the month (1.41) was large, and 1.30 of it took place within four days following the 16th. The week following this great elevation was for the most part cloudy and stormy; 3.35 inches, or more than half the monthly yield of rain, being deposited during the period.

OPEN AIR THERMOMETER.

	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	Month.
Mean,	40.2	43.2	41.7	43.4
Maxima,	61	74	62	74 on the 1st.
Minima,	25	33	28	25 on the 16th.
Range,	36	41	34	49

The highest mean of the Thermometer for any one day was 61.2, on the 20th; lowest, 31.7, on the 16th.

The mean for the month (43.4) is fully two degrees above the average. The third quarter of the month was especially warm. Maximum and minimum registering Thermometers indicated the extreme range of temperature to have been 50 degrees, having risen to 74 on the 1st, and fallen to 24 on the 16th. The warmest night was that of the 20th, when the Thermometer did not fall below 57. On the average, the maximum temperature of each day was 50.0, and the minimum 37.4, giving a mean of 43.7, which is only 3-10ths of a degree different from the mean of the three regular observations. There were five days on which the temperature was lower at 2 P. M. than at sunrise. On one of these—the 6th—it was nine degrees. On the 21st the temperature fluctuated considerably. Soon after sunrise it rose a degree, and shortly afterwards fell again; subsequently it rose five degrees, and afterwards fell four.

DIRECTION OF WIND.

	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	Month.	NO. DAYS.
N. to E.,	9	8	9	26	9
E. to S.,	2	4	1	7	2
S. to W.,	3	9	11	23	8
W. to N.,	16	9	9	34	11

The prevailing winds from the different quarters were about their usual proportions for November, being the greatest number of days between West and North, and the least between East and South.

The proportion of the heavens obscured by clouds, as estimated without instruments, on a scale of from 1 to 10, was as follows: 7 A. M., 6.5; 2 P. M., 6.4; 9 P. M., 6.4; mean for the month, 6.4, or a considerable more than one-half.

Rain or snow fell on 14 days, giving a depth of water of 6.04 inches, which is more than 2 inches above the average. This gives a total depth from January 1st to December 1st, of 47.80 inches, which is about 7 1-2 inches more than the annual average. The prospects are, therefore, that there may be an excess of 10 inches or more at the end of the year. On the 7th, there was a severe storm of hail and snow, commencing at 7 A. M. and continuing till 6 P. M. The depth on the ground did not exceed 2 inches, although but for the temperature being above the freezing point, especially in the early part of the day, it would doubtless have measured three inches or more. This was an early day in the season for so severe a storm, and led to apprehensions on the part of some of an early commencement of a severe winter season. Such a storm, however, is no certain indication of what kind of weather may be expected. On the contrary, the probabilities are that the storms generally, during the present winter, will not be followed by the sudden fall in the temperature and the heavy Northwest winds, which are the accompaniments of a severe winter. November 1827 was marked by a severe snow storm in the early part of the month, and was also colder than any since; but the winter which followed was milder than any which have succeeded. The snow storm of the 7th is worthy of attention in other respects than that of being early. Generally there are two sources to which our storms may be traced. Those termed Southeasters commence in the West or Northwest, nearly or quite a day sooner than at New York. The Northeasters have their source in the Southwest,

and move with considerable regularity along the coast, toward the Northeast, reaching Halifax about a day later than they do in New York. The storm of the 7th does not seem to have partaken of the characteristics of either of these classes, but seems to have approached broadside from the seaward, striking the whole coast almost at the same time; there being only an hour's difference between New York and Boston, while it did not reach Cleveland untill the following day.

A comparison of November of this year with the same month last shows the mean of the Barometer this year to have been .180 higher, and the range 0.55 greater. The mean temperature was 5.6 degrees higher and the range 6 degrees greater than last year. The depth of rain this year was 2.64 inches more than that of last, which was 3.40 inches.

The elevation of the Barometer on the 16th seems to have been greater in New England than in other parts of the country from which we have heard. In Boston its greatest height at mean sea-level was 31.055, at a temperature of 50 degrees. This would give, reduced to the freezing point, 30.998, or an elevation of .027 of an inch higher than was observed here. With so small a difference, it is difficult to judge at which place it stood highest, without knowing the comparative readings of the two instruments when together, there being almost always some slight correction to be made from such differences. In New Jersey, it appears from the *Newark Advertiser*, the greatest elevation was 30.786, indicating that the mercury did not stand as high by some twelve-hundredths of an inch as it did in this city; as, according to that paper, their standard read by Green's, to have given the same elevation, would have stood 30.918.

In the comparison of Barometrical readings in different places it is often difficult to come at satisfactory results, both on account of the difference in the readings of the instruments and the omission on the part of observers respecting the corrections to be made for temperature and altitude above the sea-level.

H. C. SHELTON.

December 3d, 1862.

SEPARATING THE SEXES IN SCHOOL.—On this point Mr. Stowe, a celebrated Glasgow teacher, uses the following language:

"The youth of both sexes of our Scottish peasantry have been educated together; and as a whole, the Scotch are the most moral people on the earth. Education in England is given separately, and we have never heard from practical men that any benefit has arisen from the arrangement. Some influential individuals mourn over the prejudice on this point. In such, a larger number of girls turned out badly who had been educated in one until they attained the age of majority, than those who were otherwise brought up. The separation of the sexes has been found to be injurious. It is stated on the best authority, that of those girls educated in schools of convents, apart from boys, the greater majority go wrong within a month after being let loose in society and meeting

the other sex. They cannot, it is said, resist the slightest compliment or flattery. The separation is intended to keep them strictly moral; but this unnatural seclusion actually generates the very principle desired to be avoided. We may repeat that it is impossible to raise the girls as high, intellectually, without boys as with them—and it is impossible to raise boys morally as high without girls. The girls morally elevate the boys, and the boys intellectually elevate the girls. But more than this—girls are morally elevated by the presence of boys, and boys are also intellectually elevated by the presence of girls. Girls brought up with boys are more positively moral, and boys brought up in schools with the girls are more positively intellectual, by the softening influence of the female character. In the Normal Seminary, at Glasgow, the most beneficial effects have resulted from the more natural course. Boys and girls, from the age of two or three years to that of fourteen or fifteen, have been confined in the same class-room, galleries and play-grounds without impropriety, and they are never separated except at needle-work."

The following interesting remarks respecting the eclipse of the Moon are from the *Boston Traveller*:

TOTAL ECLIPSE OF THE MOON.—Early in the morning of Saturday, Dec. 6th, the Moon throughout the United States will be "totally" eclipsed. The Moon will not, however, wholly disappear, but will continue faintly visible, rayless, and in color and appearance resembling a tarnished copper disc. Indeed, it has been estimated that only about nine-tenths of the light of the Moon is intercepted when our satellite is wholly immersed in the shadow of the Earth.

At those places in the United States, &c., whose longitude exceeds 86 1/2 degrees West, this eclipse will begin a little before midnight, or late in the evening, of Friday, 5th. Thus at Chicago and St. Louis, whose longitudes are 87 1/2 and 90 1/4 degrees, it will begin at 11h. 55m. P. M. of 5th at the former city, and at 11h. 44m. P. M. at St. Louis. As the eclipse in this country happens at midnight or soon after, the Moon will be high here, and in Cuba near the zenith.

This will be the last "total" eclipse of the moon visible in this country within several years. One will occur on the 1st of June next, the whole of which can be seen in Europe and part in the island of Newfoundland, but even at Eastport, the most eastern point in the United States, the moon will not rise that day until after having begun to emerge from the shadow of the earth."

PAPER MADE FROM CORN LEAVES.—The *London Mechanics' Magazine* states that excellent paper is now made in Europe from the leaves of Indian corn. There is one paper-mill in operation in Switzerland, and another in Austria, in which paper is made from such leaves exclusively. The husks which envelop the ears of corn make the best quality. As we are dependent upon Europe, in a great measure, for our supply of rags to make our paper, if we can obtain as good qualities from Indian corn leaves, we may yet become the manufacturers of paper for the whole world, as the greatest supply of cheap raw material is found in America. This is a subject worthy of deep attention, as we import rags to the value of about one million dollars annually, and paper manufactures to the value of about one million dollars.—*Exchange.*

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W. H. HOBBIE, Principal Brownell Street Grammar School.
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“EVEN EXCHANGE,”

OR

PROGRESSIVE TRUTH

VINDICATED!

A Reply to Messrs. Brewer & Tileston's late Pamphlet and Advertisement.

THE charge of “falsehood” so lavishly stowed upon me on the part of Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, publishers of a rival series of Readers, would not, in its results, be very serious, even if such assertions should be unnoticed. Too much notoriety has already been given to Hillard's Readers and Worcester's Spellers, by being brought in contact with meritorious works of a similar name. The Progressive Books, by Town and Brook, gain nothing by such notoriety, they are too well known to require the flattering assistance emanating from a source, a prominent object of which is to keep fresh before the people” the fact that Hillard's Readers and Worcester's Spellers are yet out of print.

The assertion of “falsehood” will be clearly seen, I trust, to rest upon the heads of those who have serenely laid themselves down under a darkened shadow, displayed in an extraordinary effort to vindicate the “Truth,” while every evidence, plainly deducible from their own acknowledgments, goes far to convict them of misrepresentation.

In the “Massachusetts Teacher” of November, present, and in a pamphlet, entitled “Truth Vindicated,” appear articles over the nature of Brewer & Tileston, which neither justice to myself nor reflect honor upon my authors. “Truth Vindicated” contains twenty-eight pages, twelve of which appear to be a eulogy on Hillard's Readers and Worcester's Spellers. The larger portion of recommendations embraced therein, however, came from the State of Ohio, where Hillard's and Worcester's Series no sooner find their birth than their moral and practical characteristics developed themselves; and they were strangled in the attempt to breathe a freer atmosphere. As it is my intention to furnish proof of my “assertions,” in this reply to Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, I would respectfully refer those interested in the “increased popularity of Hillard's and Worcester's Series”

in Ohio, to Messrs. J. B. Smith & Co., of Cincinnati.

Now, turning my attention to the article in the “Massachusetts Teacher,” and presuming it is the intention of its authors to reprint it in other equally able Educational Journals of the day, I will call attention to the following table of comparative size and cost, given in the “Even Exchange” circular (with such corrections as I hereafter refer to), which circular was issued by me, June 20th, though bearing date June 16th, 1862:—

	No. pages.	Wholesale.	Retail.
Hillard's First Class Reader,	552	.67	\$1.00
“ Second “ “	278	.45	.67
“ Third “ “	182	.34	.50
“ Third Primary Reader,	236	.25	.38
“ Second “ “	120	.17	.25
“ First “ “	72	.12	.18
Worcester's Speller,	180	.17	.25
	1620	\$2.17	\$3.23

Correction.—To the Second Class Reader, 58 pages, and to the Third Class Reader 46 pages of “other matter” should be added; 40 pages of which are the same in each book. But after giving the series credit for these additions and repetitions, it will be seen that the aggregate number of pages is *still less* than in the Progressive Series.

Hillard's Series, to make it complete, has a Fourth Class Reader (price 42 cents), and a Primary Speller (price 13 cents), in addition to the above-named books, thereby requiring a greater outlay on the part of the pupil using this series, while nothing is gained by the study of such additional matter.

	No. pages.	Wholesale.	Retail.
Progressive Fifth Reader,	504	.87	.98
“ Fourth “ “	384	.60	.75
“ Third “ “	304	.38	.50
“ Second “ “	208	.25	.30
“ First “ “	112	.15	.20
“ Primer	64	.10	.13
“ Speller & Definer,	108	.10	.13
	1744	\$2.15	\$2.89
Total number of words in Worcester's Speller,			8,286
“ “ “ “ “ Progressive “			13,911

We have here shown that the *corresponding* books, alone, of the Progressive Series contain more pages than Hillard's and Worcester's Series, while the latter *two* are much more expensive; and, if we add the *extra* cost of the two books above named, we have the unnecessary sum of *eighty-eight cents* to be expended for every set of Hillard's and Worcester's Series. The comparison between Worcester's and the Progressive Speller is significant; the former, containing only 8,286 words, costs *twenty-five cents*, retail, and the latter, containing 13,911 words (all *common* words in the language), costs *thirteen cents*, retail.

It is shown by the preceding table, that the sum of *two dollars eighty-nine cents*, the retail price of the Primer, First, Second, Third, Fourth, and Fifth Readers and the Speller, is the total expense to which the scholar is subject in the adoption of the Progressive Series.

I quote from the "Teacher:"—"Mr. Ellsworth introduces into his table the Progressive Speaker as an optional book with the Fifth Reader, but excludes its cost from the table of prices."

O consistency! Will Messrs. Brewer & Tileston have the candor to give the Progressive Series due credit for the number of pages the "Speaker" contains, if they intend to include it in the table of prices? Our table neither shows the number of *pages*, nor includes the *price* of the "Speaker." Every one knows, that where the Fifth book is in use, the Speaker cannot be, since both books are intended for the most advanced class in school, their use being optional with the teacher.

Falsehood *number one* is uttered by Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, when they say, "It is not necessary to use the two extra books embraced in Hillard's and Worcester's Series (viz., Hillard's Fourth Class Reader, costing *forty-two cents*, retail, and Worcester's Elementary or Primary Speller, costing *thirteen cents*, retail), for these books can be omitted, as they generally are," &c. I shall show this last quotation, however, to be *nearer* the truth than any other portion of their infamous sheets, bearing upon every page unblushing falsehoods and veiled deception. Now, these two books must have a meaning; they must have been intended for *something*; and they should fill a space no other books of Hillard's and Worcester's Series can, to be of any practical use. One is the pivot book of a series of Readers, leaving a broken link, if omitted; the other is a Primary Speller, without which (in country schools especially) Worcester's large Speller (retailing at *twenty-five cents*, while it contains only about half the number of words embraced in the Progressive Speller, which retails at *thirteen cents*) cannot be successfully used.

The fact that schools are "not graded," is no reason why the scholars should not have the full benefit of all the matter to be obtained in the adoption of a well-graded series of text-

books. Country schools, because the "not graded," we are led to understand may plainly infer, do not receive the full fit of Hillard's and Worcester's Series, in adoption. This is not the case with the Progressive Series; and hence the great *use* of these well-graded and practical books issued about the same time as Hillard's Series, yet numbering in their adoption *towns* to Hillard's one. As I propose to prove, my introductory Ledger, with *settled* and unsettled, and my reports, *rec* from various towns within the last six *mo* are at the service of any one doubting statement.

In Messrs. Brewer & Tileston's compo of "Other Matter," these gentlemen out-Herod Herod. In their eager effort to swell the size of their books, they have resorted to counting the *blank* or *fly-leaf* of their Readers, and of twice taking their account of "other matter," *forty* of Hillard's Third Class Reader, for the *forty* pages, word for word, are repeated in Hillard's Second Class Reader, a higher in the series.

And this is not all. These introductory exercises, most of which are *twice* repeated in series, having neither form, nor comeliness, practicality, may, perhaps, be found *useful* in the hands of pupils as so many of Latin, Greek, or Choctaw to mere English scholars. But this wily deception plainly manifest on the part of Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, I will not include in my *falsehoods*, simply allowing it to pass as a *men* of one of their *white lies*. How commendable and ennobling the exertion, in *such* tenderness of conscience, and in a degree of honesty!

The "other matter," referred to in the Progressive Series, will be found, on examination, composed of material very properly placed under that head; and it most *con* shows the author's *impractical* ideas of one of the indispensable requisites in a series of Readers for school use.

In the preface of the "Third Class Reader" it is taken for granted that some *tea* do not understand this "other matter;" may such apprehensions arise, for it is too obscure and unintelligible even to the subject of Orthoepey, the *only* subject in any number of the series, to benefit to a teacher who knows but little of the subject; and it is equally useless to a scholar who thoroughly understands it, because for the most part altogether *im*practical. What, then, shall be said of its adoption in the Third or Fourth Class readers, children of ten or twelve years of age, for whom it is signed?

Now, while the subject of Orthoepey has been more briefly and familiarly treated in the other departments of the series, it ought not to have been omitted.

notice of this criticism will be obvious from the following extracts:

Page X. "The indefinite and extendible elements are sometimes called CONTINUANTS; and the abrupt, PLODENTS."

Page XI. "The abrupt subtonics, when fully articulated separately, have, at the precise moment after the OCCLUSION is suddenly broken, a short and obscure vocal sound, which is called a *rocute*."

Page XV. "The *rocule* of an atonic should not be made vocal; nor that of a *subtonic overdone*."

In the Progressive Series, Messrs. Brewer & Tileston ignore eighty pages in the Third Reader, one hundred thirty-six in the Fourth, and two hundred fifty-four in the Fifth, embracing in all every department of elocution, and THREE HUNDRED PAGES of peculiarly appropriate and illustrative reading-matter, all of which, according to their judgment, comes under the head of "other matter,"—thus modestly offsetting in their table the most valuable portions of the three higher books of the Progressive Series, by frankly acknowledging, but at the same time attempting to hide the deficiency in Hillard's Series, in which they claim only ten pages of "other matter" in the First Class Reader, fifty-eight in the Second, and forty-six in the Third. The want of "other matter," embracing all the departments of elocution, practically arranged and illustrated, the ground-work of every practical and successful series of Readers, is one of the many weak points in Hillard's Series.

To falsehood number two, the preceding is believed to be a full and satisfactory refutation.

As one evidence of a "sorry confession, relative to changes made in Hillard's Readers," on the part of Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, I offer the fact that the author has expunged from the late editions of one Reader a certain immoral and otherwise objectionable piece. I refer to his selection of "Midshipman's Pranks," in which the dog Shakings is said to take improper liberties with an officer's newly polished boots; and because this "ugly, dirty beast of a dog" is expelled from the ship, the old sow and all the pigs on board are put in mourning, by tying bits of black bunting to their legs. "The row which ensued in the pig-sty was prodigious," &c. &c. "How debased the mind that can invest so pure and beautiful a passage with an impure meaning!" See Truth Vindicated, page 4.

The exclusion, also, of a certain sectarian piece, entitled "The Three Friends," may or may not offend a few members of our Boston School Committee; while no one would be surprised if the omission of the Roman Catholic piece of poetry should create opposition in another direction.

The only happy medium, gentlemen, is to let such subjects entirely alone, giving heightened moral and practical lessons, and carefully excluding from your books all pieces from which inferences of a low, vulgar, and "sensual character" are sure to be drawn. I care

not where such objectionable pieces may be found, whether in the writings of American or English poets. Much as I admire the writings of Shakespeare and other authors referred to in your scurrilous "Truth Vindicated," allow me to say, that the "figures" I referred to in my "Even Exchange" the authors have drawn from *real life*. It matters not how little or how much the writers may have embellished the background, they have accomplished one object in a masterly style; and there is no "dishonesty, and fitful, fraudulent trickery," in perceiving the *idea* such figures will *unavoidably* suggest.

In the construction of sentences, Hillard's Readers are still open to criticism (as many of the sentences can not be properly reconstructed without making new plates), notwithstanding the alterations made in the late revision of the series, in which over one hundred grammatical, sentential and other errors were corrected, in accordance with the suggestions made in the "Critic Criticised," and published by Bazin & Ellsworth more than three years ago, in reply to a criticism on one of their publications.

Falsehood number three.

"In the matter of price," says the "Teacher," "it is an established custom of publishers to give nominal retail prices fifty per cent. in advance of the wholesale prices. This may be called the catalogue retail price; but it is well known that the actual retail price of school books is always much less than the catalogue price. Yet Mr. Ellsworth has the disingenuousness to give the catalogue price of Hillard's Readers, and the actual retail price of the Progressive Series."

The writer of the above could not have uttered a more gross and willful falsehood had he just emerged from the depths where "all liars find their part." I copied from the publishers' catalogue the wholesale and retail prices of each series. Your very "Truth Vindicated," Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, convicts you of falsehood. See pages 17, 18, and 19.—"A First Class Reader by George S. Hillard, 12mo., 528 pages (a few pages have since been added.) Price \$1.00, &c. &c.!" and yet you claim that your retail price, after all, is only 88 cents.

You have attempted to draw off attention to this fact, by skulking into a corner, with no curtain of honesty to hide your peccadilloes, and there showing how many pages of reading and "other matter" Hillard's Series furnish for "one cent." No such miserable subterfuge will shield a design "conceived in sin and born in iniquity." My "catalogue," "nominal," and "actual retail price," is the price I publish to the world, and the *only* price I charge for my books at retail. I have never deceived the pupil or the parent by giving "nominal" prices to enrich the merchant. I do not charge the sum of one dollar on my catalogue to be shown the scholar, for the sake of making friends with the "mammon of unrighteousness." Messrs. Brewer & Tileston may make such discounts to the "trade" as they choose; this will not protect the pupil

from imposition. The following proof of falsehood number three, will, I trust, be satisfactory to every one:—

BOSTON, NOV. 1, 1862.

OLIVER ELLSWORTH, Esq.

Dear Sir: In answer to your inquiry as to what is considered the retail price of a book, I would say, that I understand the retail price of any book to be that which the publisher of the book puts in his catalogue or "trade list" which he issues for general distribution and guidance, in juxtaposition to the wholesale price; and it is so considered by the "trade" everywhere. If it were not so, why publish these catalogue prices? What do they represent when a long and short price is given in a circular or catalogue, but wholesale and retail prices?

Reference to the catalogue of Messrs. Harper & Brothers, Lippincott & Co., D. Appleton & Co., Ticknor & Fields, Little, Brown & Co., R. S. Davis & Co., Gould & Lincoln, Ivison & Phiney, Brewer & Tileston, and, in fact, the catalogue of every publishing house in this country, shows this fact.

(Signed) WILLIAM LEE,
Formerly, PHILLIPS, SAMPSON & Co.
Late, CROSBY, NICHOLS, LEE & Co.
Present, LEE & SHEPARD.

I know no other retail prices for my books than those charged in my circular, the object of which is to prevent exorbitant charges, as the general tendency is to exceed the ordinary price in this respect. In the opinion expressed by Mr. Lee, I cheerfully concur.

(Signed) JOHN L. SHOREY,
Publisher of Sargent's Standard Series.

We consider our published retail prices, contained in our catalogue, the usual prices at which our publications should be furnished to scholars.

(Signed) CROSBY & NICHOLS,
GOULD & LINCOLN.

I consider the statement, as made by Mr. Lee, entirely correct.

(Signed) F. A. BROWN.

The undersigned, publishers of Greenleaf's Series of Mathematics, fully concur in the opinion expressed by William Lee.

(Signed) ROBERT S. DAVIS & CO.

We coincide in the opinion expressed by William Lee.

(Signed) CROCKER & BREWSTER.

Such an array of testimony as the above, so clearly fastening deception and falsehood upon Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, should convince every recipient of a copy of "Truth Vindicated," that something more than their mere assertions will be necessary, hereafter, to satisfy the public. But, in the purchase of Hillard's and Worcester's books, let school committees demand "fifty per cent. discount" from Messrs. Brewer & Tileston's "nominal," "catalogue," "retail prices," and merchants and booksellers "govern themselves accordingly."

From the "Teacher," again:—

"Indeed, Mr. Ellsworth states some of his prices less than they actually are. He gives the Progressive Speller at 13 cents retail, while in many places it retails at 17 cents, and very rarely less than 15 cents."

If the Progressive Speller retails at 15 or even 17 cents, after my publishing to the world that the price is 13 cents, I can only say, that pupils get much nearer a full equivalent for their money than when they purchase Worcester's two spellers, retailing at 38 cents, or even his large speller at 25 cents, for they get a book containing more of the essential elements of a

good speller, in a much higher perfection. The wholesale price of the Progressive Speller is also exceedingly low, when compared with Worcester's, since it contains nearly double the number of words embraced in Worcester's large book, and sells for about one-half the price.

The little time allowed me for reply to the two efforts of Messrs. Brewer & Tileston, that have just made their appearance, is my only apology for not going more fully into the proof of the declarations contained in the "Eva Exchange" circular, every one of which is true. Mr. Swan's denial of his remarks to me creates no surprise in this community. Every teacher and bookseller in Massachusetts, who has any personal acquaintance with Mr. Swan, knows that he has many times acknowledged the fact that he is the author or compiler of the Primary books of Hillard's Series.

Let us quote Mr. Swan's letter, and compare the same with the evidence hereafter presented.

"BOSTON, Sept. 24, 1862.

"In relation to the statement purporting to be made by Oliver Ellsworth, in regard to Hillard's Readers, so far as it relates to me, I have to say that it is wholly false. The charge is not only untrue in itself, but the statement that the 'facts in regard to the use of Mr. Hillard's name came from' me is also false.

(Signed) "W. D. SWAN."

Mr. Hillard, in his letter to Messrs. Swan, Brewer & Tileston, under date of July 1, 1862, says:—

"There is something flattering to one's self-love in the impression that my name is worth buying; but cannot rest silent under the charge of having been base enough to sell it. . . . The readers in question were compiled exclusively by me, with the exception of the Introduction on Reading, Enunciation, and the Training of the Vocal Organs, which appears in the Second, Third, and Fourth Class Readers, &c.

(Signed) "G. S. HILLARD."

I certainly wish to do Mr. Hillard no injustice. What I have stated in my "Eva Exchange" is founded not only upon my conversation with Mr. Swan, as stated, and the evidence of others who have conversed on the same subject with both of the above-named gentlemen, but on the evidence of those who, when this question of veracity comes before a proper tribunal, will convince Mr. Hillard and Mr. Swan that the assertions made as my part had their origin in acknowledgments which they themselves have made. I therefore retract nothing, reserving my chief evidence for a future occasion, trusting that the following proof will assure those who have received my former statements, that I have been strictly truthful in making the same.

The "flattery," which Mr. Hillard's "self-love" may have experienced by such assertions, is very properly confined to the individual himself; and the "silence," now brooked on his part, under the charge of "having been base enough to sell" his name (thus in his language, not mine), gains nothing for the cause by the crutched defense made, either

himself or one of his former publishers. Such statements fall to the ground when tested by the strength of evidence, and that, too, on the part of one so well known throughout the country. Therefore, no eulogy from my pen is necessary to sustain the high social and Christian character enjoyed on the part of the Rev. Mr. Tilton. This is but one of many witnesses I have in my power to present; but this, alone, is sufficient to fully sustain the assertions referred to.

"BOSTON, Nov. 8, 1862.

"MR. OLIVER ELLSWORTH.

"DEAR SIR: In reply to your favor, regarding a personal interview I had with the Hon. George S. Hillard, allow me to say, that at the time Hillard's Series of Readers was being compiled, I called upon Mr. Hillard, and incidentally referred to the books in question, calling his attention to Webster's orthography as being the standard, and generally adopted throughout the country, at the same time asking him if it would not be to his advantage to adopt the Websterian orthography. Mr. Hillard remarked that he had nothing to do with that matter; that he was only editing Mr. Swan in compiling the Readers, and that he did not know that he should have anything to do with the series beyond the books then published.

"Yours truly,

"D. TILTON."

From Messrs. Brewer & Tileston's "TRUTH VINDICATED":—

"A correction of SUNDRY FALSEHOODS and MISREPRESENTATIONS in a circular signed by OLIVER ELLSWORTH, and addressed to SCHOOL SUPERVISORS, COMMITTEES, and TEACHERS of the State of Maine."

"The following letter, corroborating the above, (Mr. Tilton's testimony,) will settle the matter regarding the statement alleged to have been made" by MR. ELLSWORTH:—

"— November —, 1862.

"OLIVER ELLSWORTH, Esq.

Dear Sir: In reply to your letter of the—inst., I would say that I cannot recall precisely what Mr. Swan said about Hillard's Readers. My impression is that he said that he himself prepared several of the lower books of the series, and that Mr. Hillard had nothing to do with the preparation of the series except with one or two of the higher books.

I have no wish in any way to become involved in this controversy. Yours respectfully,

I, Oliver Ellsworth, of the city of Boston, Publisher, on oath declare and say, that the above is a true copy of a letter received by me from one of the most prominent educational men of New England. I withhold the name of the writer on account of the wish expressed by him in the letter itself.

OLIVER ELLSWORTH.

I hereby certify that the above is a true copy (except the omission of date and signature) of the original letter as compared by me this day.

November * * 1862.

(Signed)

W. W. COWLES,

Notary Public.

"Truth Vindicated" is a worthless, slanderous apology,—avoiding the question at issue, or else elevating old ones in such forms as to be easily stripped of their disguise. None but those akin to old "Original Sin" would issue a "hand-bill" containing such an array of self-convicting evidence.

The system of espionage, the late "firm" of Swan, Brewer & Tileston have carried on, has given them an undue advantage over me in procuring early reports. A letter directed to

Mr. Swan, while at New Bedford, will explain itself,—the original of which I have seen, and can publish if required. It unmasks an arrangement I never supposed so many "honorable" gentlemen would engage in.

The letter emanates from the younger Tileston, announcing the receipt of one of the "Even Exchange" circulars (which Mr. Tileston terms "Ellsworth's circular") some days before its issue from the office of Rand & Avery, printers, and, in fact, before one hundred copies of the circular had been printed.

This interesting letter contains the following: "The Ellsworth circular is not yet issued. It may be he will change his mind, and not send it. The person bringing us the copy does not wish to be known in the matter." The letter is in the hand-writing of the young gentleman referred to; but, fortunately for another party, notice is given that "father has not yet returned."

Messrs. Brewer & Tileston publish the vote of the Boston School Committee in reference to the "Progressive Speaker" (by D. B. Tower), by which a few books of that number of the Progressive Series, then used in a few of the East Boston schools, have been displaced by Hillard's First Class Reader. But they do not inform the public, that within the past year the Hon. William D. Swan, then one of the publishers of Hillard's Series of Readers, called upon D. B. Tower, of this city, author of the "Progressive Speaker," to engage his hand and employ the workings of his brains to revise his (Swan's) old Readers.

If Mr. Swan's ideas were very exalted in regard to the practicality of Hillard's books, why not employ the gentleman who has lately announced that he "alone is responsible for the contents" of Hillard's Readers as they originally appeared? What did Mr. Hillard say soon after the "Critic Criticised" was issued? Not until the corrections had been made in his Readers to the extent of adopting nearly every suggestion found in the "Critic," and not until sufficient time had elapsed since its issue to bring about a general change in the appointment of new men as members of school committees in various towns, has Mr. Hillard been heard from; neither have the publishers, so commendable for their sagacity, until now, attempted a reply.

Have Messrs. Brewer & Tileston informed those who have been the favored recipients of a copy of "Truth Vindicated," as well as a copy of the "Teacher" referred to, that Dr. Brewer, a member of that "firm," is a member of the Boston School Committee? Have they intimated that this same gentleman has button-holed nearly every teacher in this vicinity using the Progressive Speaker, and very "disinterestedly" urged the adoption of an inferior book, known by the "flattering" title of Hillard's First Class Reader? Has any notice been given that the Boston schools,

in using Hillard's books, follow the orthography of Worcester's Dictionary, and that the "firm" of Brewer & Tileston are the publishers, also, of this late revision of Walker? Do they publish, in vindication of "Truth," the fact of my never having called on a teacher, member of the School Board, or parent of a pupil attending the Boston schools, or that my agents, or the authors of any book I publish, have never done so, to say that the Progressive Speaker might be retained? Do Messrs. Brewer & Tileston give notice that the books of the Progressive Series follow Webster's orthography, the acknowledged standard throughout this country, and would be in *this city* were it not for *local* influences constantly at work? But enough of this.

The general plan of Messrs. Brewer & Tileston is — and so, too, it has been the custom of the preceding "firm" — to obtain the privilege of having their publications entered upon the list of books *permitted to be used by teachers* in a town, and then to announce this as an adoption, "either in part or whole, of Hillard's Series." I refer more particularly to the schools of the city of New York, in which Hillard's books can not be found, probably, in more than one school out of a hundred. Any books may thus be added to the "list" by publishers making application. Hillard's books *were partially* adopted by the schools of Philadelphia, and *displaced almost immediately*.

While stating that Hillard's and Worcester's Series are "increasing rapidly," Messrs. B. & T. are careful not to announce that they are *decreasing* still more so. They refer, in various circulars, to Cleveland, New Bedford, Manchester, Biddeford, Fryeburg, Bangor, and many other towns, as using Hillard's or Worcester's Series, while scarcely a book of either kind can be found in their schools.

On the twenty-first page of Messrs. Brewer & Tileston's pamphlet, David Worcester, Esq., Superintendent of schools, Bangor, Maine, a relative of the author of Worcester's Dictionary and "nominal" author of Worcester's Spellers, gives his approval of Hillard's Series; and, from his recommendation, some persons would naturally suppose those books are now in use in the schools of that city. Hillard's "First Class Reader," the only book of the series ever authorized by the school committee of Bangor, has been lately displaced by the adoption of the "Progressive Speaker;" while Worcester's Speller has been discarded altogether, and the Progressive Speller, in connection with the Progressive Series of Readers, is now in general use in the schools of Bangor.

"Our pamphlet," says the "Teacher," "is worth sending for, if for no other reason than to show the merits of the individual who sets himself up as the critic of Shakespeare, Longfellow, Tennyson, Browning, and Hillard."

That Mr. Hillard is not beyond criticism,

will be readily seen by sending for a copy of the "Critic Criticised," or Key to Hillard's Readers as they originally appeared. "Our pamphlet," also, "is worth sending for, if for no other reason than to show the merits," &c. Who does not know that there are many passages in Shakespeare not exactly suitable for a school reader? Why do the publishers of Hillard's Readers avail themselves of the many corrections pointed out in the "Critic Criticised," and yet possess the brazen impudence of calling me to an account for so kindly suggesting them?

In regard to the "vote of the New Hampshire Board of Education," I need only say, that it adopted *all* the books of the Progressive Series necessary for the use of the common schools of the State. Few books, comparatively, higher than the Progressive Fourth Reader, ever find their way into the *common* schools of New England.

In reply to B. & T.'s statement in reference to "Vermont," I will simply remark, that the Board of Education, in adopting the Progressive Series of Readers, could not adopt the Speller, as only a few pages had been electrotyped at the time the decision was made; and therefore the "Vermont Speller" was adopted. The Progressive Speller, however, has since found its way into many of the towns of the State. Worcester's large Speller was also adopted for High schools, but has since been found to be too impractical in its arrangement, and much too expensive, for use.

Maine has now the Progressive Series in use in nearly every town. Massachusetts is divided between the Progressive Series, Sargent's, Town's old, Lovell's, Tower's, Russell's, and a few of Hillard's. Connecticut and Rhode Island are divided in nearly the same proportion as Massachusetts, with Hillard's little in use.

The schools of Providence, Rhode Island, announced as having adopted Hillard's Series, have always used more books of the Progressive Series than they have of Hillard's. Portions of both Series were adopted; but many teachers have discarded Hillard's, *even preferring Shakespeare* to the compilation of his distinguished Boston compeer. Messrs. B. & T. also claim that Hillard's and Worcester's books are in general use in several other towns, viz: Portland, Augusta, Richmond, Thomaston, Wiscasset, Waldoboro', &c., in some of which only *one book* of the series is used, while in others but a *partial* introduction of the series has been made.

Such is the state of book-matters in New England. And since Messrs. B. & T. have referred to the "increased use of Hillard's Series," as being the motive for my issuing the "Even Exchange" circular, or, as termed by Mr. Tileston, the Ellsworth circular, and in the same breath declare that their books are not so "unpopular and declining" as to induce them to make any "wholesale offers of even exchange" (see Massachusetts Teacher,

number 1862), it will not be unbecoming in me, I trust, again to present proof of honorable veracity on their part, as they are to forget entirely to-day what has taken place but yesterday. The following is a list of many letters recently received:—

WILTON, MAINE, Nov. 3, 1862.

ELLSWORTH.

Sir: * * * We can have Hillard's Readers Worcester's Speller put into all our schools at an exchange." I prefer your Readers and Speller (Hillard's Town and Holbrook's) although I am glad to pay for them. Respectfully yours,
J. R. EATON.

the following named towns, the "indecent" use of Hillard's and Worcester's Spellers appear to have been seen through a reflection:

WATERBORO', ME., Nov. 6, 1862.

The Committee of this town voted *unanimously* to the Progressive Series in place of Hillard's, now in use.
(Signed) S. K. HAMILTON, Chairman.

MAYSVILLE, ME., Aug. 25, 1862.

have authorized the use of the Progressive Series in the schools of this town, in place of Hillard's.
(Signed) T. M. RICHARDSON, Supervisor.

MONTICELLO, ME., Nov. 3, 1862.

have authorized the use of the Progressive Series in place of Hillard's and Worcester's.
(Signed) C. STACKPOLE, }
C. S. PITCHER, } Com.

PRESQUE ISLE, ME., Nov. 3, 1862.

have authorized the use of Town and Holbrook's Series (Progressive) in all the public schools of this town, in place of Hillard's.
(Signed) MOSES ROSS, }
D. B. PIKE, } Com.
D. STICKNEY, }

THOMASTON, MAINE, Aug. 20, 1862.

* We have decided to adopt the Progressive Series, by Town and Holbrook, in place of Hillard's, now in use.
(Signed) C. PRINCE, Chairman.

MANCHESTER, N. H., Oct. 1862.

The School Board of this city authorized the use of the Progressive Speller in place of Worcester's. We shall require from fifteen to eighteen copies. The Progressive Readers are in use in all our schools, giving entire satisfaction.
(Signed) J. O. ADAMS, Supt.

STONINGTON, CT., Jan. 20, 1860.

a meeting of the Board of School Visitors of the town of Stonington, holden at the house of Elder Griswold, Jan. 20, 1860, for the purpose of exchanging school books with reference to their introduction into our district schools, it was voted,—That there are *serious objections* to the further use of Mr. Hillard's Readers in our schools. That we approve of Town and Holbrook's Progressive Series of Readers and their Speller, and commend their introduction into our schools as *as practicable*. That those of Hillard's now in the schools be exchanged for Town and Holbrook's.
S. S. GRISWOLD,
Chairman of the Board of Visitors.

The names of forty-one other towns, all in England, where school committees have arrived at similar conclusions, during the past six months, can be given, if desired, to show the "increased popularity of Hillard's Worcester's Series;" while I challenge B.

& T. to publish the names of over three towns, in which the Progressive books have been displaced within the past six months by the adoption and introduction of Hillard's and Worcester's Series, even though gross misrepresentations have been resorted to, and their "Free Circulating Library," in the form of a Worcester's Quarto Dictionary, covers not only the track of every agent in their employ, but the foot-prints of those who have displayed in this respect a generosity worthy of a better cause.

What reply do Messrs. Brewer & Tileston make, after calling me a "liar," a "publisher of falsehood," one who "garbles," "guilty of travestying," &c., when it is here so fully proved that Hillard's Series is on the "decline"? And what think these high-minded publishers of the "impure mind" of the author of the "Even Exchange," as they meditate on the preceding votes?

The publishers of Hillard's and Worcester's Series must adopt some other mode than "guerrilla warfare," if they would be successful in their present vocation. Until then, the author of "Even Exchange" "will be happy to correspond with committees and teachers" who are desirous of getting rid of "poor books foisted upon towns by importuning agents," among whom the following is a fair specimen:

PORTLAND, ME., June 9, 1862.

Friend —. I understand the "firm" of Bazin & Ellsworth have *smashed*, and that they will not be likely to come up to the letter of their agreement in exchange of Readers. If they do not, you are under no obligations to them. I think you had better let the Progressive slide. I will furnish you Hillard's and Worcester's on *EVEN EXCHANGE*, if you desire it. * * * I think you would find it to your advantage to take our Readers, or at least not to take the Progressive.
(Signed) GEO. N. JACKSON.

In my estimate of the total number of pages in Hillard's Readers, an error was inadvertently made in not including the introductory or "other matter" in two books of the series. The number of pages was taken from the last page of each book of both the Progressive Series and Hillard's. The author of the latter, however, it seems did not, for some reason, consider the introductory or "other matter" — which, he *admits*, was prepared by another person — worthy of enumeration with the reading-matter, and hence my mistake. But even with this "other matter," and the *blank leaves* included, the corresponding numbers of the Progressive Series contain *more* pages than Hillard's, and, when used, are a saving of *eighty-eight cents* on each entire set of the books.

"No member of the 'firm' of Swan, Brewer & Tileston," says "Truth Vindicated," "had the least connection with this measure, (the late enactment by the Legislature of "Maine in regard to school-books), either in favor of or against it. We knew not that such an enactment was proposed until it had been adopted." If Messrs. S., B. & T. intend to say, that they had no interest in the passage of this law; that Mr. Brewer did not visit Au-

gusta on that business; that their agent did not use what little influence he could exert to carry the same through the Legislature; that Mr. Brewer, in his late visit to Lincoln and Knox counties, did not assume to be the *expounder* of the new law, and attempt, though without success, to convince certain school officers that it required an *absolute change* of books in every town not using Hillard's and Worcester's Series, and that therefore the Progressive Series, in general use, and giving entire satisfaction, throughout the State, *could not be established* in accordance with the true intent and design of its provisions, — an exposition that could not have been dreamed of by the Legislature, but one unwittingly bringing to light a deep-laid scheme to revolutionize the school-books of the State, the main-spring of which is this new law, and one, too, pointing unmistakably to a familiarity with its origin, then, I say, they utter another *deliberate falsehood*.

Stung with disappointment by the practical workings of this law in Maine, it being *directly the reverse* of what he anticipated, Mr. Brewer next made a visit to the residence of a member of the New Hampshire Legislature, in order to obtain a similar school-book law to the one recently enacted by the Legislature of Maine, with the necessary emendations to suit his purpose; and he would doubtless have been successful, had not timely warning been given to the true friends of education, and his selfish and interested motives exposed. This is disappointment *number two*.

It is doubtless because of these *signal failures* of Messrs. B. and T. to *suppress, by law*, the use of Town and Holbrook's Progressive Series in the States of Maine and New Hampshire, and to *establish* the use of Hillard's and Worcester's Series in the same, that they, with all the apparent innocence of "angels of light," so pitifully claim the public sympathy in the very first line of their pamphlet, by stating that "a gratuitous and unprovoked attack" has been made upon them and certain of their publications by the author of "Even Exchange."

Does a *deliberate and studied attempt* of this nature to do me so great a pecuniary injury, and the *schools* of these two States a still greater injury, simply because it was *unsuccessful*, lose its moral turpitude or criminality, ac-

cording to the system of morals in which gentlemen were schooled? If so, I think that they need the kind sympathies of their friends; and I most sincerely commend to the tender commiseration of those who read this, the author of the law which teaches them a different kind of ethics.

It will at once occur to the school committees and teachers of New England, that Messrs. B. & T.'s pamphlet, and their advertisement "Massachusetts Teacher," made their appearance at a moment when the authors' position was so weak, that it was impossible for any refutation of their falsehoods and misrepresentations to be published, or any vindication of "Progressive education" to be made, in time for distribution previous to the opening of the winter schools. How may be, I am thankful that the question does not depend upon the statements of Messrs. Hillard, Mr. Swan, or Messrs. B. & T., but upon the *comparative merits* of the two series, which have been rivals for pupils from infancy to manhood. The Progressive Series, in keeping with its title, has been constantly growing in favor with the people within the last twelve months, has so "increased in popularity," that it has now or quite doubled its previous yearly sales.

I regret the necessity of again appealing to the public in self-defence. But I have been personally attacked, and accused of statements "unqualifiedly untrue," in Messrs. B. & T.'s "mendacious circular," just as I could not rest silent." And I remember, that a full and complete vindication of "truth," on my part, seemed to demand somewhat personal reply.

With all the preceding facts before me, sustained as they are, on my part by the most *unquestionable* testimony, I am qualified to let every unprejudiced reader decide for himself whether "a gratuitous and unprovoked attack" has been made upon Messrs. B. & T., in the "Even Exchange" circular (other ever issued by me), or whether it contains a single "fabrication," or a single "misstatement" in which "there is no truth," or even the smallest shadow of truth. Here I leave the question for the press.

OLIVER ELLSWORTH

BOSTON, Nov., 1862.

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Very truly yours, ISAIAH PECKHAM, Principal.

BARTLETT HIGH SCHOOL, NEW LONDON, CT., October 22, 1862.

I have examined Greenleaf's New Elementary Algebra, which you sent me, and am much pleased with it. The principles are few and *clearly* expressed. The superiority of the work, above other elementary treatises, in my opinion, consists in the well-selected and *numerous* examples,—fully sufficient to illustrate and impress every principle. I think when I form a new class I shall have it pass through this into his Treatise on Algebra.

E. B. JENNINGS, Principal.

RUSSELL'S COLLEGIATE HOME INSTITUTE, NEW HAVEN, October 18, 1862.

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